The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Tariff Bill of the Committee of Ways and Means has been reported at last, after throes and spasms the like of which have never been seen or felt in the construction of any similar measure. Nobody could have imagined beforehand that the principle of bounties from the Treasury would be admitted into the bill. The duty on hides has been juggled with to such an extent that one juggle more or less could not cause any surprise. But that it should be seriously proposed to pay a bonus of two cents a pound to anybody who chooses to grow sugar, and one dollar a pound to anybody who chooses to grow raw silk, would not have been believed had not the bill been actually presented in that form. Alongside of these propositions we have an increased duty of 120 per cent. on tin-plates, of which none are produced in this country, and of 200 per cent. on carpet-wools, of which practically none are produced. The argument for bounties applies to both these things with as great force as to sugar or silk. The encouragement given to the production of those articles by a bounty would be equally as great as by the tariff, and the consumer would not be taxed in the unconscionable manner proposed. One feature of the bounty on sugar is, that it commits the Government for fifteen years, regardless of the complexion of future Congresses. In other words, it appropriates public money for half a generation in advance of the occasion for using it.

Publishers of newspapers and of books, and the printing trade in general and paper-manufacturers, should take notice that the McKinley Tariff Bill more than doubles the duties on blankets and felts for printing and paper-machines. The present rate, reduced to ad valorem, is 52.87 per cent. The bill raises it to 108 per cent. This is done by the cunning device of striking out section 379 of the present tariff, which reads as follows:

"379. Endless belts or felts for paper or printing machines, 20 cents per pound and 30 per cent. ad valorem."

By striking out this section these articles are thrown into the category of manufactures of wool and hair not specially provided for, the duty on which is advanced to the following rates:

"Valued at not more than 40 cents per pound, the duty per pound shall be three and one-half times the duty imposed by this act on a pound of unwashed wool of the first class, and in addition thereto 40 per centum ad valorem; valued above 40 cents per pound, the duty per pound shall be four times the duty imposed by this act on a pound of unwashed wool of the first class, and in addition thereto 50 per centum ad valorem."

In order to ascertain what the duty is, reference must be made to the duty on unwashed wool of the first class. This is fixed in the bill at 11 cents per pound, the present rate being 10 cents. The duty on blankets for printing-machines is therefore a "triple expansion" tax, amounting to 38½ cents per pound and 40 per cent. ad valorem if valued at not more than 40 cents per pound, and 44 cents per pound and 50 per cent. ad valorem if valued at above 40 cents. Who conceived this intricate device for increasing the taxes on knowledge and adding to the cost of every school-book, newspaper, and Bible, and every scrap of printing or writing-paper and envelope in the country, we do not know, but we think that it is the duty of the press to find him out. When found, he will probably say that the duty will only amount to a few cents per head of the population, and therefore ought to be disregarded.

The theft of two Senatorial seats from the new State of Montana was consummated on Wednesday week, when the Republicans of the Senate voted solidly in favor of seating the two Republican contestants who were never elected by any legally constituted Legislature. The Republican Senators have confessed judgment by their conduct during the so-called debate which preceded Wednesday's vote. They were unable to meet the Democratic arguments against the committee report in favor of the Republican contestants, and their spokesmen, including Messrs. Sherman, Hoar, and Evarts, cannot be said to have done anything more than quibble over the points at issue. The simple fact is, that the Republican majority decided to seat the Republican contestants before the committee had reported, or before even an inquiry had been held, in accordance with the Republican "plan of campaign" to secure so large a party majority in the Senate as to make it impossible for the Democrats to gain control of that body for five and possibly ten years to come. If the party can thus get the means for blocking legislation for an indefinite period, its leaders do not care how many States they may lose in the meantime because of their partisan course.

The Republican majority in the upper branch is now ten, that party having forty-seven Senators against thirty-seven for the Democrats. If Wyoming and Idaho are admitted and elect Republican Senators, according to the party programme, the majority will be increased to fourteen. As matters now stand, the majority is larger than either party has had for a number of years, the upper branch having been very close ever since the Republicans recovered it, through the help of Mahone, in 1881, after the Democrats had held control for the two previous years, by ten majority when David Davis voted with them, and eight when he cast his vote with the Republicans. From 1861 to 1879 the Republicans had held uninterrupted control of the Senate, and for much of the time by at least a two-thirds vote. The "tidal wave" of 1874, which wiped out the Republican majority in the House, left the party still with a good working majority in the other branch, and it was four years later before the change in popular sentiment was fully reflected in the Senate. In like manner the Democrats may sweep the country in the elections for Representatives next fall, and yet leave the Republicans from 1891 to 1893 with a good majority in the Senate. Indeed, it will require almost a revolution in public sentiment to shake Republican control of the Senate before 1895, so strongly is that party now intrenched.

The closing scene of the Pan-American Conference is said to have been extremely affecting, Mr. Blaine being almost moved to tears when he gave the word of parting. If the emotions of the conferees were due to the small results achieved, they were fully justified. The ostensible object of the Conference was to promote reciprocity in trade. Its real object was to enable a few steamship-owners to get their hands into the United States Treasury. Reciprocal trade relations have not been advanced an inch. Steamship subsidies have been advanced an inch or two, but are yet far from attainment. When the South Americans get home and recover from the effects of Mr. Blaine's benediction, they will probably perceive that there is not much to be gained by voting *their* money to carry on trade in the face of a tariff that increases the duties on their coarse wool about 200 per cent.

Whatever may have been Mr. Blaine's connection with the bejuggled duty on hides, it is certain that he has had nothing to do with the proposition to make raw sugar free. If that proposition becomes law, it will destroy all his chance of concluding a treaty of reciprocity with Brazil. With that country alone of all the South American nations has he made a serious and persistent attempt to negotiate such a treaty. The negotiations are now pending, and it is no great secret that their success depended upon Mr. Blaine's ability to induce the Senate to ratify a treaty giving Brazil the privilege of free raw sugar. That is the only trade concession we can grant to Brazil, and the only one she asks. In return for it she would abolish or lower duties now affecting American exports. But if Congress makes all raw sugar free, it takes the last card from the Secretary of State's hand, and gives the Brazilians all they want with no need of paying anything for the new advantage. As it is not to be supposed that Mr. Blaine has been insincere in his approaches to the Brazilian Commissioners, the conclusion is inevitable that he must look with extreme displeasure upon the free-sugar clause of the McKinley bill. This lends plausibility to the theory that the Committee on Ways and Means has treated him as cavalierly as it has the rest of the Cabinet, and that he really had no hand in the affair of the duties on hides. Indeed, why should a

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committee that deliberately declares its intention of destroying our foreign commerce, go out of its way for the sake of a beggarly treaty of reciprocity?

Secretary Windom has written a letter for publication defending his Silver Bill, in which he enumerates "the extraordinary concessions which are offered to the silver sentiment of the country." These constitute exactly the reason why the bill ought not to pass. The Secretary of the Treasury is the very last man who ought to make such concessions. He, of all others, ought to set the example of rigid adherence to correct principles of finance, because any bending, any fluctuation, in that quarter will be taken (as it has been) by the silver fanatics as proof that they are wholly right. Regarded as a "back fire" to the silver craze, the Windom Bill has been a failure. The true policy of the friends of sound finances is to fight on the front and not on the flank. If the silvermen are the stronger party, let them have their way, after the best resistance that can be made. They will be cured of their folly after they have had a taste of it. If the American people want to see all the dollars in their pockets turn into 70-cent pieces, it is much better to let them try the experiment than for the Secretary of the Treasury to make the "unparalleled concessions to the silver interest" which he so plumes himself upon.

Another pension job was all but carried through the House of Representatives on Monday, in the shape of a bill proposing to put on the pension-roll every Union soldier who was made prisoner during the war. This would be equivalent to a proclamation to soldiers in any future war that the surest pathway to the financial gratitude of their countrymen lay through surrender to the enemy. Nevertheless, this absurd proposition almost secured the two-thirds vote required to carry it under a suspension of the rules, and would have gone through without opposition if there had been no Democratic members.

It took only five minutes' time for an impartial jury, after hearing evidence and arguments on both sides, to decide that worsteds are not woollens under the tariff laws of the United States. The verdict is that Secretary Windom's decision on this question, whereby worsted coatings and suitings were lifted out of one section of the Tariff Act and put into another section, was contrary to law, and that the Government must pay back the money wrongfully extorted from importers of worsted goods together with interest at 6 per cent. It is to be assumed that the Administration will say all kinds of things now of the counsel for the importers, the jury, and the judge, and will, on some pretence or other, carry the judgment to the Supreme Court on a writ of error. Anything for delay, and a concealment of the Treasury nakedness, and a warding off of the sharp condemnation, by removal from office, which should, by an honest President, be visited on Windom, Tichenor, and Hepburn.

The result will be used as an argument for McKinley's Administrative Bill, on the plea that Government judges and New York jurymen cannot be trusted; but the truth is, that if the worsted case had been tried under the fourteenth and fifteenth sections of that bill, the importers would have been beaten, and for the simple reason that they could not have got out the facts. There could not have been an adequate application of that tremendous corkscrew of cross-examination of witnesses, and no compulsory attendance of witnesses before the general appraisers. There could not have been the exclusion of incompetent and illegal evidence, and the inclusion of that of an opposite character. What general appraiser, likely to be appointed, could have fitly presided over such a trial, as did Judge Lacombe, ruling under the peril of a humiliating wigging by the Supreme Court if he erred? There is no especial moral victory for anybody in this decision, excepting for those who pointed to the Treasury decision as evidence of a corrupt bargain for votes for Harrison.

In so far as the organs of the Administration notice the charges against Quay at all, they treat them as an attack of British free-traders on a great American protectionist, and they rely for "vindication" on the fact that Quay has been elected to various high offices since the date at which he committed his offences. The steady reliance of organs on this line of defence for criminal politicians is one of the most curious phenomena of our time. In fact, it furnishes a study in morbid psychology. You say to a man, "On such a day, in such a place, in the presence of such and such witnesses, you stole a thousand-dollar note. You were pursued and captured, and the money was found in your boot."

Ans. "I know very well what your views are about the McKinley Bill regulating the administration of the customs, and, therefore, your accusation makes no impression on me whatever. After hearing what you say about Maj. McKinley's mode of appraising goods, I feel sure I cannot have committed the offence which you describe, and decline to put in any defence."

Accuser. "Is it possible this is all you have to say to the witnesses who saw you in the act, and to the officer who found the money in your boot?"

Ans. "By no means. I have also to say that since they caught me I have been elected to more than one place of trust and emolument, which could not have happened if what these witnesses said about me was true."

Acc. "But why could it not have happened? Did the voters who elected you know anything about the charge? Had they heard the proofs and your defence?"

Ans. "No, they knew nothing about it whatever, which shows that it was a lie. Vindication at the hands of persons who have examined your case is of very little importance compared to that of persons who have never heard of it, or have heard only your own story. Hearing both sides confuses the mind and destroys the judging capacity."

To say that the Working-Girls' Convention held last week was one of the most remarkable we have ever had in this city, would be saying something very commonplace. It is in reality the outward and visible sign of an extraordinary change in the outlook of a class which was, perhaps, less considered and in many ways more helpless than any other portion of the community—the young girls dependent on the work of their hands for their own support. That they should have come up out of the dull and dreary and lonely obscurity of their homes, have organized themselves into clubs for mutual assistance, enjoyment, and improvement, have provided themselves with comfortable club-rooms, where they get hopeful and elevating glimpses of all that is going on in the great world outside the humble sphere in which they live, assurances of sympathy, hints about life, manners, dress, and cultivation, from women more fortunately situated, and possessing a larger experience—that this movement should have spread widely, and should have resulted in the meeting of several hundred delegates to talk over common interests and experiences—is certainly a very singular and most hopeful phenomenon. Most of the large cities were represented in the Convention, as, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, Chicago, San Francisco; and many smaller places. The movement, we believe, originated in New York, and was due to the initiative of Miss Grace Dodge and Miss Clara Potter; and it is a movement which of course could not have succeeded without the display by these ladies of extraordinary tact as well as practical wisdom in winning and justifying the confidence of the girls in their sympathy and coöperation.

The three things which a Tammany leader most dreads—we give them in the order of repulsiveness—are the penitentiary, honest industry, and biography. It is not always in the power of decent people to condemn him either to the penitentiary or honest industry; but painstaking and courageous reformers can always write his biography. In fact, the rise into power of the gang who now have possession of the city government is due solely to the fact that their biographies had not been published. Grant never could have been elected had the lives of himself and his companions been laid before the public by careful and competent hands. It is the obscurity which veils the earlier portions of their career which enables these men to live on the city. Public spirit in New York is not very strong nor active; but that portion of the community which follows honest callings is not so bereft of self-respect, of love of country, and of reverence for the moral government of the world, as to accept with eyes open a municipal administration composed of men taken largely from the class of criminal or shiftless

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adventurers. Therefore we say that anybody in this city who has heart or energy or time for the work of reform cannot do better than get up the record or biography of each Tammany politician as he comes to the surface of affairs and either gets an office or becomes entitled to "divvies" from the party funds. Of course he must be watched for, and have his portrait taken the minute he rises out of the slime of crime and lawlessness in which he is apt to be originally bred, and the work is not pleasant; but we fear it must be done steadily and persistently, if this city is to be saved from becoming a disgrace to American civilization, and an aid to the enemies of popular government all over the world. Considering the frightful demoralization of the poor foreign population which our present city government works as soon as they come in contact with it, the standing denial of God and the mockery of justice, of truthfulness, honesty, and purity which it seems to represent to them in all the branches of it which touch them, the indifference of the religious and well-to-do class in this city to what is called "politics," and their frequent readiness to sacrifice the city to the Federal questions, are both painful and astonishing.

Mr. Dana, the editor of the *Sun*, is laboring to prove that somebody called him "a dirty liar and thief." Indeed, he is hardly satisfied with that. If there are any words more vituperative, he wants the public to understand that they were applied to him. Paul Pry solicited the favor of a booting. Dana insists that he has already received one, and he implies that he would like to have another. It all grows out of the interview with ex-President Cleveland in the *World*, which that paper acknowledged was fictitious. Most people who had been led to believe that they had been called "dirty liar and thief," would be glad to know that no such terms had been applied to them. Not so Dana! He rejoices to believe that they were applied to him. He hugs them. He glories in them. They are a decoration to him provided only that Mr. Cleveland applied them to him. Anybody who can prove that Mr. Cleveland said that Dana was a dirty liar and thief, will hear of something to his advantage by applying at the office of the *Sun*.

Mr. Goschen's budget speech shows that the British finances are in a flourishing condition, and that although the laboring classes have been relieved of all taxes on the necessaries of life except tea, there is a surplus in the treasury of more than $15,000,000. It is proposed to reduce the duties on tea (now 6d. per pound) to 4d. What a contrast this budget presents to our tariff, with its monstrous exactions on the clothing and other necessaries of the people, which the McKinley bill proposes to increase instead of diminish! Among other items in Mr. Goschen's speech of present interest to us is his statement that the postal receipts exceeded the estimates by $500,000. Included in the estimates of expenditure are all the so-called "subsidies" for ocean mail service. The receipts for mail service have exceeded the payments for all such service, including ocean mail-carriage, every year for a very long time past, and now we are told that there has been a net gain in one year of half-a-million dollars. What will the sagacious Farquhar and the subsidy-beggars at Washington say to this?

Affairs in East Africa have taken a very curious turn. Emin Pasha, whom Stanley went to rescue, has turned his back on his rescuer and gone back, or is trying to go back, to his old dominions, in the service of Germany, whereat there has been a good deal of excitement in England. They say there that Emin is ungrateful, after so much pains was taken to rescue him, to go back to the place from whence he came without as much as saying thanks to his rescuer, and in taking service with the Germans, who have now become England's rivals in East Africa, after England had furnished the expedition which went to his aid. The truth seems to be that nothing has ever been truly known about Emin's views in the whole matter. There can be little doubt that he enjoyed his pashalik in the Sudan mightily. He ruled over a large extent of territory and a submissive, if not attached, population. He had a small standing army, and lots of ivory, and was able, like the German Emperor, to receive any one who wished to help him with open arms, and smash to pieces any one who tried to hinder him. He held his ground very well until the Mahdi, away down at Khartum, got his power sufficiently consolidated to send a force up to reduce Emin to submission and to defeat him in several encounters. Emin then not unnaturally began to sigh for civilized life, and probably heard with relief that Stanley was coming. But as soon as he got out of the Mahdi's clutches, and reached Stanley, and found himself as it were under another man's orders, and on the point of becoming a simple doctor, or literary man, or returned traveller in Europe, his feelings naturally underwent a change. He found he would sooner be a prince in the desert than a short-lived lion in London or Berlin drawing-rooms. So he wavered and doubted, and provoked Stanley by his vacillation, and was not very grateful for being rescued, and finally decided to take service under Germany and go back to his old throne if he could get there under German auspices. All this is very natural and innocent, and why the British public should be provoked over it it is hard to see.

A lively turn was given to Spanish politics in the last days of March, by the case of Gen. Daban. A member of the Senate, as well as a General in the army, that gentleman wrote a circular letter to all his brother officers severely criticising the military policy of the Government, and asking for information which might be used against the Minister of War in the coming debate in the Senate. The letter leaked out, of course, and the Minister of War considered it a grave breach of discipline. He at once issued an order for the General's arrest and imprisonment for two months on the charge of insubordination. Notice of the order was transmitted to the Senate, that the acquiescence of that body in the punishment of one of its members might be secured. A great cry was immediately raised that the Government was overriding parliamentary privilege and going in the teeth of the Constitution, which expressly declares the inviolability of members of the Cortes. But the Minister of War maintained that he was proceeding not against a Senator, but against an insubordinate member of the army, and that if it came to a question of the relative importance of army discipline and a strained parliamentary privilege, he should decide for the former. The heated debate which followed left the Government with a comfortable majority, and when Gen. Cassola took the matter up in the Chamber, in the hope of making a point against the Administration, he had no success whatever. Spain has suffered too much from insurrectionary military men not to have a wholesome prejudice against them, and Sagasta's fervent assertion of the supremacy of the civil power, and his declaration that insubordination in the army must be punished at all costs, have won him new popular favor.

A highly valuable report on the economic movement of Mexico since 1885 has been sent to the Foreign Office by the British Minister to Mexico, Sir Francis Deny. He records the gratifying increase of revenue which has gone steadily on, even with the remission of some taxes, and notes the march of public improvements with which we are so familiar in this country. A fact of special significance is the falling-off in the proportion of silver to the general body of exports. Though still the principal article of export, it now constitutes but five-eighths of the total exportations, whereas not long ago it amounted to seven-eighths. This fact implies a considerable quickening of agricultural production of various sorts. Sir Francis calls attention to the chronic deficit in the budget —an element of the financial situation which somehow never gets telegraphed from Mexico —and says that the swelling railway subventions are the sword of Damocles hanging over the Mexican Treasury. He is decidedly of the opinion that railroad building has been overdone, at least in comparison with other public improvements. He thinks that the pressure on the Treasury caused by the service of the present foreign debt and the increasing payments to railroads will make a new and larger foreign loan necessary. This prediction is borne out by the presentation, in this very session of Congress, of a proposal for a new loan of $40,000,000 to fund all outstanding debts. Still, it is gratifying to know that this cautious Englishman, who looks on all sides of the question, believes that the country is in a sound and progressive condition, and that its financial future is secure.

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A FARMER'S TARIFF BY R. P. PORTER.

THE governing principle, we are told, of the McKinley Tariff Bill is protection for the farmer. At least this was the talk while the duty on hides was retained. To support this doctrine various misleading statements have been published lately, the most deceptive being one which we find in the *American Economist* of April 11, signed by Robert P. Porter, who seems to find time, amid his duties as Superintendent of the Census, to do a good deal of falsifying outside of his own bureau in behalf of those who put him there. In this statement Mr. Porter, in order to show the farmer how much he is protected by the tariff, says that "last year the agricultural products imported on which duty was levied, aggregated in value over $250,000,000." Then he gives a list of what he calls "imports of important agricultural products," as follows:

Sugar	$93,000,000
Animals and products, except wool	41,000,000
Fibres, animal and vegetable	60,000,000
Fruits	19,000,000
Barley and cereals	9,000,000
Tobacco leaf	11,000,000
Total	$233,000,000

It will be a pleasant surprise to the farmer to be told that the duty on sugar is for his benefit. It will be a valuable instruction to him and to his representatives in Congress who have been clamoring to have sugar put on the free list, and have succeeded so far as raw sugar is concerned, to be told by Porter that they have been mistaken all along, and that they ought to consider the duty on raw sugar an advantage to themselves and not a tax on their earnings. If the farmers and their representatives in Congress really understand their own interests in this matter, we may safely begin the task of pruning Mr. Porter's table by striking out "sugar, $93,000,000," and leaving his total for the present at $140,000,000.

The next item is "animals and products except wool, $41,000,000." The word "products" is rather vague, but we suppose it means animal products. Of animals dutiable we imported in the year ending June 30, 1887, $4,677,997 worth. Of animal products, dutiable, not including wool, we imported bristles $1,174,333, ivory (we do not produce elephants in this country) $485,508, meat products $434,853, dairy products (principally foreign varieties of cheese not produced in this country) $1,371,386; total animals and animal products dutiable, $8,144,077. But of this amount we must subtract bristles, ivory, and foreign cheese ($874,261) as non-competitive products, leaving only $5,609,975 upon which the American farmer gets any protection, instead of $41,000,000, as stated by the Superintendent of the United States Census.

His next item is "fibres, animal and vegetable, $60,000,000." Even this large item does not include wool, for Mr. Porter says in the next paragraph:

> "With such an array of important products protected, to say nothing of wool, of hops, of hay, of eggs, of vegetables, of seeds, and of a score of minor products, is it likely the American farmer will give up the tariff because the free-trade shouters are loudly proclaiming against the iron and woollen barons?"

The principal items in this list are flax $1,922,182, hemp and all substitutes $4,041,522, jute $2,616,128, sisal grass and other vegetable fibres $3,733,001, rags, shoddy, and waste $1,843,823; total $14,156,656. If we have omitted any "important" dutiable fibres, Mr. Porter will favor us by stating what they are. It is well known that flax is not raised in this country as a fibre, although there is a duty of $20 per ton on it. Therefore the duty is not protection to the farmer. On the contrary, it is an injury to him as a consumer of linen goods. The same may be said of jute and sisal grass. As for hemp, we have had a protective duty on it ever since 1824, and what has been the result? According to the late Judge Kelley, there are 24,000 acres of land in Kentucky on which hemp is grown, and that is all. Is the American farmer protected by a duty on woollen rags? Most of his woollen clothing is either in that form now or fast going that way, but he would scorn the suggestion that he was protected by a duty of ten cents a pound on his clothes after they will no longer hold together. In short, in the whole $14,000,000 of imported fibres the farmer does not get a cent's worth of protection, except possibly in the little item of Kentucky hemp. As to Mr. Porter's $60,000,000, it is mere coinage and invention.

What about "fruits $19,000,000"? The dutiable fruits are figs, oranges, lemons, limes, prunes, raisins, Zante currants, dates, and pineapples. How much is the American farmer protected by a duty on pineapples or on anything in the whole list? The California and Florida fruit-growers are not usually classed as farmers, although they do cultivate the soil, as the vine-growers of the former State do also. It would be just as proper to put in Mr. Porter's list all the foreign wines imported as the foreign fruits, since some few of our agriculturists grow grapes.

There remain the items of barley and cereals and leaf tobacco, amounting together to $20,000,000. On neither of these is the duty protective to any appreciable degree, because the kinds of barley and of tobacco imported are different from those grown in this country. But we will give Mr. Porter the advantage of these in the summing up. It appears that the table, if truthful, would have been constructed as follows:

Animals and animal products, except wool	$5,609,975
Fibres, animal and vegetable (hemp)	4,041,522
Barley and cereals	9,000,000
Tobacco leaf	11,000,000
Total	$29,651,497
Porter's statement	233,000,000
Difference	$203,348,503

The fact is, as everybody knows, that the only farmers who are protected under the tariff are a few on the Canadian border in New England and northern New York. The wool imports are not included in Porter's table. There is good protectionist authority for saying that even the wool duties are a damage to the farmer, and this is our opinion; but we will allow that the importations of clothing and combing-wool (but not carpet-wool) are competitive. These amount to about $6,000,000 in value, hops about $4,000,000, hay (what an absurdity is a duty on hay!), about $800,000, and seeds, including flaxseed, about $850,000. Add all these to the total above, and we have $41,000,000 in place of the $250,000,000 with which Mr. Porter seeks to bamboozle the American farmer. What confidence can be put in the forthcoming census in the hands of such a falsifier?

THE VOTE OF THE FARM.

THE present year is the year of the Federal census. Evidently it is also a turning year of the tariff controversy—a year when the minds of voters are swiftly changing on the subject of our "protective" tariff policy, and changing in the direction of tariff reduction. The coincidence is peculiarly opportune for a condensed review of the absolute strength of the vote which comes from the American farm. No doubt, the coming few years will show great changes for the good in the old manufacturing States, particularly among that class of factory producers which each day grows more and more clearly defined as the "raw material" group. But, highly important as that class is, it is relatively small compared with the farmers, among whom, unless all signs deceive, the richest fruits of the reform are to be harvested very soon.

Although most persons have a general notion of the great strength of the farm vote, yet few have a clear conception of its real dimensions and relative importance in the country both as an industrial and political factor. The census of 1880, which on this point must be nearly accurate, fixes the male population engaged in all occupations at 14,744,942 out of the total working population, male and female, of 17,392,099. Of the last-cited number, 7,670,493 were classed as agricultural, and of the males in that vocation there were 7,075,983. That is to say, if we carry out the ratios, nearly one-half of the population of the whole country was agricultural, and, consequently, one-half of its vote came in 1880 from the farm. The total population of the country is now approximately 65,000,000. During the last decade it is probable that the growth of the farm class has at least kept pace with that of the other industrial groups. While farming has relatively declined at the East, the decrease has been made good in the newer States of the West and Northwest. Out of our whole present population of, say, 65,000,000, we may assert with confidence that at least 32,000,000 are agricultural. Our total vote for President in 1880 was 9,218,550, or about 1 to 5.4 of population. This ratio would give about 12,000,000 as the total vote that would reach the polls if a hotly contested Presidential election were to be held to-day. The number is probably a little too small, since the ratio of 5.4 is that for the Hancock-Garfield campaign, which did not draw out a very full vote. But, accepting the figures, the agricultural part in this vote would be, say, thirty-two sixty-fifths, or about 5,900,000.

This, then, is the vast group of voters

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whom no sophistry of the protectionists ought for an instant to delude into the belief that a high tariff is for their benefit. They are *a priori* "unprotected," the victims of a system of free-trade selling and "protected" purchasing—in their economic relation as consumers paying heavy prices for high-tariff goods, and as producers most of them selling against the competition of the world's markets.

Let us pass from this analysis of the farmer vote of the whole country to a more critical survey of its dimensions in particular States. We select for this twelve States, of which all but one (Connecticut) voted for Harrison in 1888. They are chosen with especial reference either to the already observed tariff changes among the farmers, to the narrow margins of party majorities in them, or to both:

	All occupations (male).	Farmers (male).
California	348,303	78,785
Connecticut	192,663	43,936
Illinois	893,679	433,796
Indiana	583,658	329,614
Iowa	483,457	302,171
Massachusetts	546,591	64,746
Michigan	514,191	239,316
Minnesota	230,048	130,817
New Hampshire	112,340	44,299
New York	1,521,264	375,213
Ohio	881,836	396,120
Wisconsin	371,062	194,280
Total	6,682,092	2,633,223

The twelve States named are doubtless to be the pivotal farm States in the near future of the tariff conflict. It will be seen how the relative size of the farming workers in them as compared with the whole country is lowered by such States as New York, Massachusetts, California, Connecticut, and New Hampshire, with their large comparative population of workers outside the farm. Nevertheless, about five-thirteenths of all these workers are males upon the farm, and of these probably three out of five are Republicans whose votes thus far have been cast under the party momentum to sustain a high tariff. Using the proper ratios derived from the election and census returns for 1880, we find that the farm vote of the twelve States is now about 2,200,000, probably divided as about 880,000 Democratic and 1,320,000 Republican. Certainly the Republican farm vote of the twelve commonwealths does not fall at the present time below a round million and a quarter of votes. Of the twelve, Connecticut went for tariff reform in 1888, New York went Democratic last year, and with her Ohio and Iowa gave their sharp signals of the great tariff change that is coming by registering their Democratic majorities. And the local elections which have been held since in nearly all of them show the strong political trend in the same direction.

Thus, from whatever point of view we observe it, the size and drift of the farm vote are deeply significant. They indicate the direction in which the labors of the tariff-reformers must be most strenuously pushed; they show the magnitude of the political convulsion that is surely coming so soon as the farm movement against the tariff gets fairly under way; and they move our wonder to think of the length of time that it has taken such an immense body of sincere voters, ground down under tariff impositions, to awaken to the national evil which has been "loaded" upon them like patient beasts of burden by the Republican protectionists. This long patience is the more amazing from the fact that in so large a number of the "pivotal" States of the past the change of votes needed to rebuke the high-tariff policy could have been reckoned in fractional percentages of the total farm vote. However, when the impending recoil of the farm vote comes, we do not believe it will be a matter of small percentages.

A VERY QUEER BILL.

THE fact is familiar that with the assembling of the Legislature of New York begins a time of anxiety for all honest men who care for the public welfare. One never knows what objectionable bills, under the most innocent appearance, may be voted through. Instead of using their power to forward wise schemes for the benefit of the city and State, citizens therefore are forced to spend it in detecting the presence of danger and in preventing the fulfilment of unwise or corrupt designs. The present Senate bill No. 568, introduced by Mr. McNaughton, which is so peculiar that it would seem to mean more than it shows on the surface, provides for the creation of a board of five persons whose duty it shall be to "designate the text-books to be used in all the public schools of the State." On and after September 1, 1891, no text-books are to be used in any public school of New York except those designated by this Board, which "may adopt any books already published, or prepare or cause to be prepared by experts suitable text-books." This experiment has already been tried since 1883 in California with disastrous results, and New York had better profit by California's experience in this case as in the case of the code. One trouble with our whole system of public schools is that we have already too many boards, too much dictation, and too much machinery. The protective and paternal system works evil in education as well as in law or in trade.

But a more curious provision follows. The State is to own the copyrights of all books thus prepared by its "experts." But if the Board shall prescribe the use of any books the copyright of which is held by a publisher, "the owner of the copyright shall grant, through contract with the Board, to any other publisher the privilege of competing for its production and supply on payment of a royalty not to exceed 10 per cent. of the selling price." Four of the largest publishers of school-books have just formed a combination—a sort of league, offensive and defensive—which will control the production of three-fourths of all the school-books published. In case, therefore, that any book belonging to one of these firms should be designated for use by this supreme Board, that firm, under the terms of this "privilege," would be protected from competition of the other three, while all other publishers would have no such advantage. The two facts of the Text-book Bill at Albany and the combination fit curiously together, whatever doubt may be entertained as to any power of taking away copyright under a New York statute. In any case, it is improper that five men should have power to impose text-books of their selection upon all the public schools of the State. In fact, the agreement of only four of these men could bind all the schools to the use of the books for four years, without possibility of change within that time except by a unanimous vote of the Board. The education of live human minds cannot be carried on by any such cast-iron system as this. What is required is more flexibility, not less—more wisdom and experience than is contained in any five heads, and more opportunity for open and free competition with regard to school-books, if the best are to be had.

All this on a general consideration of the bill. But when we come to specific points, it seems still more objectionable, and the conviction is irresistible either that it intentionally covers much more than it shows, or that it has been so carelessly framed as to be in fact very dangerous in its possibilities. In the abolition of all local authority, it presents one manifestation of the paternal principle which in so many forms threatens the maintenance of any real vigorous life in the country. The tendency will be to produce an apathetic feeling towards the school in all the country towns, whereas the only safeguard of the schools is a living interest concerning them in the minds of all good citizens. The clumsy construction of the bill makes it impossible to determine whether the Board to be created may not prescribe a different set of text-books for every individual school. It says only that "it shall be its duty to designate the text-books to be used in all the public schools of the State." Apparently the intention is that they shall designate one set which shall be uniform everywhere. The very fact that the bill is so carelessly worded that it is capable of two such different interpretations should be enough to condemn it. It is not said that the Board shall designate *one* set of text-books, but simply that they shall designate text-books. If we accept the apparent intention of the bill, we must dissent from the opinion that it is desirable to have the same text-books always used in bucolic communities and in cities. Books which may be the best for the city will not be the best for country children, and a text-book is a thing absolutely of no value except in its adaptability to the pupils; if it be considered abstractly, and apart from this relation, it has the same significance as Emerson's umbrella considered as alone by itself, in a universe without men or rain or sun.

Then another point: The five who are *ex officio* to constitute this autocratic Board may

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be to-day men who are capable of assuming its duties; but what are they to be to-morrow? Some of them hold their offices by appointment of the Governor, and the Governor of the State of New York, we know, does not always necessarily belong to the most judicious, intelligent, trustworthy, and conscientious class of citizens. The State Association of Teachers may elect one of their number for President out of personal favoritism or for other motives than their respect for his professional excellence, and, moreover, they may, and probably will, elect a new man every year. Our immediate acquaintance with school superintendents does not warrant us in resting with assured confidence on the man whom the Association of Superintendents may annually select for their President, and the Principal of the Albany Normal School holds his place virtually under the authority of the State Superintendent, who is one of the Executive Committee of that school. It is well known, so profitable is the sale of text-books, that there has always been a lively competition among rival firms to secure the supply for any one large city. The agents of these firms have not scrupled to approach members of city school boards with tempting inducements to secure their votes for the adoption or retention of their particular book or books. Where the principals of schools have had any influence in the selection of books, they too have been subject to pressure. The agents have even gone further than this, and have actually become wire-pullers in the election of city superintendents, so that a superintendent of schools in some large city may be and actually has been elected or deposed through the influence of men whose only interest in the matter is the pecuniary gain of the publishers whom they serve. This is bad enough. But now it is proposed to put this enormous patronage of the school-books for the whole State of New York—containing nearly 2,000,000 children—into the hands of five, or, as we have noted, perhaps of only four men. Without personal disrespect to any one of the five men who fill at present the offices which would constitute them members of this Board, we say that it is far safer for the public schools to have the pressure which comes from school-book politics distributed over a greater area. The bill, if allowed to become a law, will introduce school-book politics not only into the matter of appointments, but also into every meeting of the State Association of Teachers and of the State Council of School Superintendents.

We greatly mistake the temper of the Town Committees, of the Boards of Education of the cities, and of the Principals of the large schools, if it shall prove that they will not oppose such a despotic measure as this bill, which practically impeaches and overrules their ability and judgment. It is time that the intelligent teachers and the parents of the children in the schools should see in what direction all these things point, and should express their convictions in some voice that will be audible at Albany.

THE MARRIAGES OF WOMEN COLLEGE GRADUATES.

THE *Overland Monthly* for April contains an interesting study and classification of the statistics of marriage of women college graduates. The statistics are derived from the Register of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, and in some small part also from the Register of the University of California. The most striking point brought out by the statistics is the marked difference, in the ratio of marriages to graduates, between the coeducational colleges and the colleges devoted exclusively to women; and as regards the comparison between college graduates and other women, it seems to be made plain that the marriage-rate for women who are graduated at coeducational colleges is not distinctly lower than that of the population at large.

A close study of the data in question gives rise to considerations some of which appear to us to be not without interest in themselves, while others are instructive as showing the pitfalls to which even careful and conscientious reasoners from statistics are exposed. First, then, as to the main point discussed by the writer, the difference in marriage-rate between the graduates of coeducational and those of women's colleges. Taking the whole mass of graduates, without distinction of time or locality, the percentage of marriages among the "coeducational graduates" is far greater than that among the "separate graduates." But the writer justly points out that this is not a fair comparison, since the separate colleges are all in the East, while the coeducational ones are mainly in the West, where the marriage-rate is higher than in the East. He therefore proceeds to make comparisons between the two kinds of colleges in the same section. He finds that among the women who have been graduated in the New York colleges during the last twelve years, the married ones comprise 25.7 per cent. of the coeducational graduates and 20.6 per cent. of the separate graduates; while in the New England colleges the corresponding percentages are 24.7 and 14.8 respectively. These last figures seem to show an overwhelming difference in favor of the coeducational graduates, and the *Overland* writer thinks they afford a more trustworthy basis of comparison than the New York colleges do, because the clientèle of the New England colleges is the more homogeneous.

It struck us, however, that there was probably something wrong about the matter, and, in fact, there is a grave oversight. The coeducational colleges run through about the same years as the women's colleges, but the number of graduates from the latter has been growing much more rapidly than that from the former, so that the proportion of recent graduates is much greater in the women's colleges than in the mixed colleges. We have taken the trouble to ascertain the mean date of graduation in both classes, and the result is that the coeducationals were graduated, upon the average, 6.9 years before the date of the Register, while the separates had had, upon the average, only 4.6 years of post-graduate life. If allowance be made for this difference, the superiority of the coeducational marriage-rate in New England would seem nearly, if not quite, to disappear, and with it the main support of the writer's conclusion, that there is a very marked difference between the probabilities of marriage for women educated in coeducational colleges and those educated in women's colleges.

Upon the whole, taking as a basis graduates prior to 1876, the figures given in the *Overland* seem to indicate that about 50 per cent. of the women graduated from Eastern separate colleges marry sooner or later, and about 70 per cent. of those graduated from Western coeducational colleges; and that the difference is due in about equal parts to difference of residence and to difference in the nature of the college. This result is not to be looked upon as conclusively established, for a variety of reasons, the chief of which are that the number of cases is too small (although the *whole* number of members of the Association exceeds one thousand), and that it is not certain that the married and unmarried graduates are equally likely to become and remain members of the Association.

Assuming that the marriage-rate of college-bred women is distinctly below that of other women in the same classes of society, does this justify the inference usually drawn from it? That inference is that a college education either makes women less inclined to marry, or makes men less inclined to marry them. We say without hesitation that the inference is unwarranted; the making of it involves that most usual — though perhaps most easily avoidable — error in reasoning from statistics, the overlooking of the part played by selection. There is, in every modern community, a very considerable number of women who are still young, but who, for one reason or another, do not expect to marry. Is it not obvious that these women have special incentives to seek a college education over and above those that apply to other women, and that consequently they will be disproportionately represented among college graduates? In point of fact, one might reasonably expect from this consideration alone a greater lowering of the marriage-rate than can possibly be deduced from the statistics, so that there is standing-ground for the contention that going to college actually promotes marriage. At all events, it may be confidently assumed that whatever deficiency there may be in the marriage-rate of women college graduates shows rather that women who will not marry go to college, than that women who go to college will not marry.

But, waiving now all these questions of accurate determination, one cannot leave the subject without commenting on what would have been considered a generation ago so astonishing a phenomenon as is presented by the little difference that exists—if any exist—between the college woman and the non-college woman as a candidate for matrimonial happiness. That there is no startling difference is shown not only by statistics, but still more conclusively by the experience of every one whose circle of

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acquaintances includes college-bred women. One would naturally have expected that these bold innovators would have to go through a long period of probation, during which they would be looked upon as *lusus naturæ*, and any man so infatuated as to seek marriage with one of them would be held an object of compassion by his normal male friends. But no such thing has taken place. The "sweet girl graduates" who, forty years ago, existed only in Tennyson's prophetic fancy, have quietly glided in among us and become familiar figures; they seem to find lovers and husbands in the ordinary course of nature, and among men who are not looked upon as visionary or eccentric; and as to the happiness of the unions which they form, we feel sure that no one who has observed many instances of them, needs any statistical evidence to convince him that there is no class of marriages more uniformly happy than are those of women college graduates.

PALÆOLITHIC MAN IN OHIO.

OBERLIN, O., April 14, 1890.

Two or three weeks ago, Mr. W. C. Mills, Secretary of the Archæological Society of New Comerstown, Tuscarawas County, Ohio, sent to me a flint implement which, according to his description, seemed to have been found in the undisturbed gravel of the glacial terrace which everywhere lines the valley of the Tuscarawas River. In order the more fully to judge of the significance of the discovery, I visited the locality last week, together with a small party of Cleveland gentlemen. The result of the investigation cannot fail to be of considerable public interest.

The flint implement referred to is a perfect representative of the palæolithic type found in northern France and southern England. It is four inches long, two inches wide, and an inch and a half through at its larger end, tapering gradually to a point and carefully chipped to an edge all around. Fig. 472 in Evans's 'Ancient Stone Implements of Great Britain' would pass for a very good representation of it. The material is black flint, or chert, such as occurs in the "Lower Mercer" limestone strata not many miles away, and has upon all the surface that peculiar glazed appearance which indicates considerable age.

New Comerstown is situated upon the right bank of the Tuscarawas River, about one hundred miles directly south of Cleveland and forty miles south of the glacial boundary in Ohio. The latter part of the journey from the north to reach the place is such a complete demonstration of the now accepted theory concerning the origin of the terraces along this river, and others similarly situated, that a brief description of it will be profitable.

The headwaters both of the Tuscarawas itself and of the several branches which unite with it before reaching Canal Dover are all within the glaciated area, thus affording access to an unlimited quantity of débris brought by the continental ice-sheet from the Laurentian region in Canada. Immediately below the glacial boundary, all these streams are bordered with extensive terraces, the material of which consists of assorted matter from the glacial drift such as would naturally have been carried down during the closing floods of the glacial period.

From Canal Dover to New Comerstown the Tuscarawas River makes a long bend to the east, but the railroad cuts across the elbow, and for twenty miles or more finds its way through two small valleys tributary to the main line of drainage. The course of the railroad first strikes up the valley of Stone Creek, following it for several miles. But no sooner does it enter this tributary valley than it leaves behind the terraces and other gravel deposits which mark the main valley and every tributary further north. At length the road, after passing through a tunnel, strikes into the headwaters of Buckhorn Creek, which runs southward to join the Tuscarawas at New Comerstown. Here, too, for several miles, there is a total absence of terraces or of any deposits of gravel. On approaching the mouth of the creek, however, a vast gravel deposit derived from the northern drift is encountered, in which the railroad company is making extensive excavations to get material for ballasting their track. Thus, in this short journey, there was demonstrated before our eyes the limitation of these peculiar gravel deposits to the main valley of the river, and so, by consequence, their glacial age and origin.

It was in this last-named gravel-bank, on the 27th of October, 1889, that Mr. Mills found the palæolith above described. The surface of the terrace is at this point thirty-five feet above the flood-plain of the Tuscarawas. The valley of the river is about a mile wide. This gravel had been deposited in a recess at the mouth of Buckhorn Creek, where it was protected from subsequent erosion, and extended up the creek about a quarter of a mile, but, according to the law of such deposits, with gradually diminishing height as one recedes from the main line of deposition. The implement was found by Mr. Mills himself, in undisturbed strata, fifteen feet below the surface of the terrace; thus connecting it, beyond question, with the period when the terrace itself was in process of deposition, and adding another witness to the fact that man was in the valley of the Mississippi while the ice of the glacial period still lingered over a large part of its northern area.

The importance of this discovery is enhanced by the fact that this is only the fifth locality in which similar discoveries have been made in this country, the other places being Trenton, N. J., Madisonville, Ohio, Medora, Ind., and Little Falls, Minn. But in many respects this is the most interesting of them all, especially as connected with previous predictions of my own in the matter, though it is proper to say that Mr. Mills was not, at the time he made the discovery, aware of what had been written upon the subject.

When, in 1882, after having surveyed the glacial boundary across Pennsylvania, I continued a similar work in Ohio, I was at once struck with the similarity of the conditions in the various streams in Ohio flowing out of the glaciated region (and especially in the Tuscarawas River), to those in the Delaware River, where Dr. C. C. Abbott had reported the discovery of palæolithic implements at Trenton, N. J. Attention was called to this similarity in various periodicals at the time, as well as in my Report upon the Glacial Boundary made to the Western Reserve Historical Society in 1883 (pp. 26, 27), where it was said that the Ohio abounds in streams situated similarly to the Delaware with reference to glacial terraces, and that "the probability is that if he [man] was in New Jersey at that time [during the deposition of the glacial terraces], he was upon the banks of the Ohio, and the extensive terrace and gravel deposits in the southern part of the State should be closely scanned by archæologists. When observers become familiar with the rude form of these palæolithic implements, they will doubtless find them in abundance." Whereupon a dozen streams, among them the Tuscarawas, were mentioned in which the conditions were favorable for such investigations. The present discovery, therefore, coming as it does in addition to those of Dr. Metz in the Little Miami Valley and of Mr. Cresson in the valley of White River, Ind., has great cumulative weight, and forces, even on the most unwilling, the conviction that glacial man on this continent is not a myth, but a reality.

A glance at the physical features of the region in Ohio and Indiana where these palæoliths have been found, shows their eminent adaptation to the primitive conditions of life indicated by the implements themselves. The Tuscarawas valley has been formed by erosion through the parallel strata of sandstone and limestone here composing the coal formation The summits of the hills on either side rise to heights of from 300 to 500 feet, and their perpendicular faces abound even now with commodious shelters for primitive man. But in pre-glacial times the trough of the Tuscarawas was 175 feet deeper than at present, that amount of glacial gravel having been deposited along the bottom, thus raising it to its present level. Hence in pre-glacial times the opportunities for shelter must have been much superior even to those which are now in existence. The present forests of the region consist of beech, oak, tulip, maple, and other deciduous trees. Evergreens are now totally absent, but the advancing ice of the glacial period found here vast forests of evergreen trees. Not many miles distant, terraces of the same age with this at New Comerstown have, within recent years, yielded great quantities of red-cedar logs, still so fresh as to be manufactured into utensils for household use.

The relation of glacial man to the mound-builders is so often made a subject of inquiry that a brief answer will here be in place. The above relic of man's occupancy of Ohio was found *in* the glacial terrace, and belongs to a race living in that distant period when the ice-front was not far north of them, and when the terraces were in *process of deposition*. Thus this race is unquestionably linked with the great ice age. The mound-builders came into the region at a much later date, and reared their imposing structures *upon the surface* of these terraces, when the settled conditions of the present time had been attained, and there is nothing to show that their occupancy began more than one or two thousand years since, while their implements and other works of art are of an entirely different type from the rude relics of the palæolithic age. If, therefore, interest in a work of art is in proportion to its antiquity, this single implement from New Comerstown, together with the few others found in similar conditions, must be ranked among the most interesting in the world, and will do much to render North America a field of archæological research second to no other in importance.

G. FREDERICK WRIGHT.

ANTIQUITIES IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, March 6, 1890.

THE Egyptian Government, and especially the Egyptian newspapers, are somewhat disquieted on the subject of antiquities. The condition appears more serious since the recent removal of the Bulak Museum to Gizeh, and it may be worth the while to note some of the causes therefor. It is natural that the interest which foreigners show in discovering and removing the antiquities of a country

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should awaken the Government of that country to the importance either of taking the matter into its own hands, or of at least retaining what may be found. Persia—a comparatively new field—still grants leave to excavate with possession of the objects found, whereas the jealous and repellent attitude of Turkey is well known. The monuments of Italy and of Greece have been brought thoroughly under Government control. The defence of Egypt against plundering and harvesting of the kind implied was undertaken, not by the natives against foreigners, but by the French in the person of a noted Egyptologist, Mariette, who aimed to serve the highest interests of science. He was amply supported by the Khedive Ismail, and from 1861 until his death in 1881 he was the chief of the new Department of Antiquities.

It was Mariette who put an end not merely to the most ruthless destruction of architectural monuments, which had been wrought by natives and by tourists, but especially to the indiscriminate sale and exportation of antiquities of all kinds. The soil of Egypt was replete with material relics of a remote past, which, when once beyond the reach of air and water, seem as permanent as the sand that covers them; but they were fast being exhumed, and were here represented in no collection, nor protected by any laws. Before the time of Ismail, foreign explorers—Minutoli; Lepsius, De Rougé, and others—removed to European museums whatever portable object they thought worthy, rejecting, however, much that is now greatly prized. Individuals bought without hindrance, and native diggers had full right to what they found. When, therefore, Mariette took his official position, his influence with the Government soon effected a new branch of legislation. A national museum was created. The exportation of antiquities became illegal; only under the Museum seal, which might be granted for duplicates, could a package containing antiquities pass the customs; only by order of the Museum could such a package be received at any railway station, and the classification as freight brought it under the highest special tariff. The Government claimed the first right to purchase at one-half of its estimated value all antiquities by whomsoever found, and any native caught offending was liable to fifty blows with the kurbash—to be repeated after a week unless full surrender had been made. This law was frequently enforced. Beyond the limits of their private lands the natives had no right to dig at all, and many ancient sites came directly under Government control. For it should be noted here that all *tells* (that is, all mounds of ruined villages) are inalienable Government property. The Nile-mud bricks composing them afford, when pulverized, a valuable dressing for the fields, and so the tells are kept to serve this purpose freely. For the rest, no excavations were to be made even by competent persons, except as undertaken by Mariette, representing his department in the Government service. The police still have permanent orders to stop excavations wherever seen.

It would be an error to suppose that all of these rules were rigidly enforced, or that they could be, although Mariette was keen to detect offenders, whom he treated with the utmost sternness. An excellent museum was built up; the grossest forms of desecration were checked; the trade of the town-dealers was for the moment almost destroyed. The notion spread among the native population, and possessed the minds of persons of high rank, that all "antikas" have a high money value, increasing with their size. On the other hand, free exportation was replaced by the smuggling of objects of no great bulk, which still exists for the benefit of foreign museums and of individuals who dare not comply with the rule.

During the decade that has passed since Mariette's death, the laws have been relaxed, not tightened. Whipping as a punishment for crime has been abolished under the British occupation, and, no substitute having been provided, the natives risk only the confiscation of their finds. It results that the dealers, all of whom are foreigners, are quite beyond the control of the Museum authorities, who, moreover, are no longer too zealous to make their collection as complete as possible; and many probably unique objects pass for ever out of the country. Architectural monuments when no longer protected by the sand often tend rapidly to perish or to fall. Variation in the temperature and humidity of the air and of the contiguous soil is often distinctly harmful to what has been long under the surface. Further, these monuments being scattered over a vast extent of territory, constant effort must be made to protect inscriptions, statues, and paintings from wanton and often superstitious defacement. Formerly the mudirs, or provincial governors, were personally responsible to the general Government for the detection and arrest of criminals within their respective provinces, but increased centralization under British influence has made it often impossible to trace an act of depredation to its source. A few incidents will show what power the Government really has, or what attitude it maintains.

(1.) The mutilation, demolition, or displacement of Muslim tombs is not only a grievous offence against the Faith, but is further punishable by imprisonment according to the civil law. No human hand may disturb this final rest of a follower of the Prophet. The archæologist has explored many cemeteries of the ancient civilization, but none of the purposes of science can get for him the right to excavate a Muslim grave. It is not the customary chronological line that is here drawn, but a purely religious one. I went the other day to a burial-place of the old town almost in sight from the roofs of the modern one, which is now traceable only by the burrowing of a few Arabs for inscribed tablets of marble. They know the nature of their offence against their religion and the law, for the work is done most secretly, and the workers are off when any one approaches. It appears that these are Kufic monuments of the ninth century, of a type that is rare and not well known. These hunters are of course incapable of such considerations; but they have worked for months, and so barbarously that it is next to impossible after them to make out the construction of the vaults or to get certain details which might add much to our knowledge of the art and customs of the people there interred. The case has been reported, and perhaps the work will stop. The bones show white where the sand is broken down, and I am told that many of them have been sold to a sugar refinery. But the marble slabs—the output of this vandal industry—to the number of several hundreds have for months been quietly bought through a middleman by the director of the Museum, who admits that he has not once paid a visit to the spot, which is only half an hour distant from the Museum!

(2.) It is only about two years since Riaz Pasha, the Prime Minister, made a contract with an English firm allowing them to dig *for bones* in ancient cemeteries, bringing to the Museum any other antiquities that might be found. But that provision of a Khedivial decree was cited forbidding the excavation of any site supposed to contain relics of antiquity, except by consent of the Director of the Museum, which in this case being withheld, the contract was abandoned. The report is confirmed that many tons of bones from the great cat cemetery have lately gone to Liverpool to be used as manure.

(3.) A permanent guardsman is stationed at an important site only to be presently convicted of thieving for himself.

(4.) A town policeman goes repeatedly to a place of excavation, seizes the person in charge, who holds a formal permit, and takes him before the mudir. The person thus annoyed finds the policeman one day boldly at work there with a dealer.

(5.) Certain stones which were reserved among the discoveries of the Egypt Exploration Fund, presently appeared in the garden of an Italian consul, en route, no doubt, for Turin.

A number of temples and tombs have either been placed under guard or walled about and so put under lock and key. Less than two years ago a Society for the Preservation of Ancient Monuments of Egypt was formed in England, and it has already offered to the Egyptian Government both counsel and funds to effect its purpose. In November, 1888, a Government tax of one pound Egyptian (£E1) was levied upon travellers visiting the monuments of Upper Egypt, and the sum of more than $5,000, accruing up to July, 1889, has been devoted to the further excavation and repair of temples, especially those at Thebes. But the inadequateness of present methods is apparent.

In the Museum, Mariette as Director was succeeded by Prof. Maspero, now of the Collège de France, who, knowing the country, the people, and their language, continued an excellent administration. In the excavations which he completed, and in the works which he published, he was, as he is now, one of the chief contributors to Egyptological knowledge. He permitted excavations to be conducted by outsiders under such conditions as best to serve the interests of the Museum. The Egypt Exploration Fund and Mr. W. M. F. Petrie have been granted this privilege, but the enjoyment of it is attended with great difficulties, which do not arise merely from the limitations and restrictions at present imposed. The native officials are extremely reluctant to allow such work to go on, or to see any "antikas" taken publicly out of the country. It matters not how many duplicates may remain, for even the Prime Minister asserts that all antiquities are unique. The officials are thus led into an elaborate system of intriguing—creating obstacles at every point. Prof. Maspero also greatly increased the usefulness of the Museum collection to visitors and others by publishing a descriptive guide.

The present Director, M. Grébaut, has expressed himself as personally opposed to admitting foreigners to make excavations, although he has granted the permission to certain resident dealers; and he has made no extensive excavations himself, nor even reported upon what little has been done. But important excavations have been carried on for many months under his authority without his having knowledge of them by a moment's personal inspection. One is reminded of the idea urged in ministerial quarters that the work should be kept in native hands, following the example of Italy and Greece. In fact, a school of Egyptology for native students was kept alive for a few years while Henri Brugsch was in Egypt, being generously supported by Ismail Pasha; and when it expired there was left, it is said—a pupil. Few objects in the Museum are labelled in any way, and no progress has been made in

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this respect, nor in the making of a catalogue, since Maspero's day. Even the visitor's 'Guide' cannot be used in the new quarters, and one who seeks for information gets therefore little help.

The authority of the Director was supplemented two years ago by the appointment of an advisory commission for antiquities; and it has lately been in the air that there is to be appointed from England an Assistant Director, with administrative power.

FARLEY B. GODDARD.

THE LOWER AND MIDDLE AMAZON.

TABATINGA, BRAZIL, January 10, 1890.

IT is usual to think of the Amazon as a single splendid river wending its way through a level, half-marshy plain reaching from the Andes to the sea. Instead of this it drains a basin possessing features which vary so conspicuously in different parts that it was regarded by the Indian, and is likewise considered by the white, as consisting of three separate rivers. The Indian names for these have been retained, so that to-day the ancient designations of Amazonas, Solimões, and Marañon, are applied as they have been for ages past. The title of Marañon is restricted to the river from its source in Lake Lauricocha, sixty miles from the Pacific Ocean, on the western or Pacific slope of the main cordillera of the Andes, to its junction with the Rio Napo, three hundred miles from the Brazilian frontier. Within this distance it is augmented by the waters of twenty-two tributaries, the chief of which are the Rios Huallaga and Ucayali. From the Napo to the Rio Negro, a distance of a thousand miles, the river is known only as the Solimões, and receives contributions in this portion of its course from fourteen tributaries, several of which themselves exceed a thousand miles in length. From the Rio Negro it becomes in very truth the mighty Amazon, expanding now with the floods of twenty affluent streams, until at last, instead of a river, it resembles more a great brackish sea, studded with innumerable islands. This is often called the Amazon delta, an appellation given in ignorance of the rock-ribbed foundations of many of these islands. Hills fringe, or lie close to, the northern shore for several hundred miles from the sea, and it is useless to seek an analogy between the mouth of the Amazon and the Missi-sippi. There is much land on the lower reaches of the river subject to annual overflow, but it is not marsh, for gigantic forests hold possession here instead of grass and rushes.

It is not until you have passed Gurupá and the Island of Tucuyús that the archipelago is fairly left behind. Here are high banks. Gurupá itself is high and dry on a hill of sandstone; has a crumbling old fort built of this brown-stone; has also a church, and pretty houses, and a dock. Beyond Gurupá for sixty miles the country is flat, resembling traditionary pictures of the Amazon. The trees are lofty and weighted down with vines and orchids. Strange trunks have many of these trees; indeed, because of some tropical danger, perhaps that of hurricanes, it is quite universal for them to throw out buttresses on three sides —mere flat projections of the wood of the tree, and of so firm a texture that they are utilized for making table-tops, a single round slab being often seven feet in diameter.

Suddenly now the country becomes hilly. The land to the northward is traversed by a succession of low-lying ridges, level on top and dropping down at singularly regular angles into the surrounding plain. For a hundred miles there is little change. Settlements are few, and the *fazendas*, or plantations, are inferior. The little huts contain amazing populations of children; seldom are there less than six or seven naked babies to be seen in one of them, and often more. The absence of larger children and the enormous protruding stomachs of the infants cannot but excite surprise. This leads to an explanation of the fact that the population of the Valley of the Amazon does not increase. It is only the strongest, the *very strong*, who can reach maturity through the evils of hunger and hardship, exposure and recklessness, which compose existence here. Out of a family of ten children the Cabucla, or half-breed Indian, does well to raise one. It is phenomenal for him to raise two. There is nothing to eat but bananas and fish and a bit of farina. There are no clothes to protect against chilly winds, which do actually blow in the tropics as well as in more rigorous climes. The roof of the hut is leaky. Often there is no hammock for the unclad little creature—nothing but a cold clay floor to lie on, with no covering at night. The whole refuse of the household, the dirt and filth, which in other lands is hurried out of sight and smelling distance, is allowed to accumulate outside the door. The damp forests hug close and even overhang the huts, breeding other germs of disease. Who dares wonder that the most common words on the tongues of Amazonians are *febre, sezões; sezões*, dread fever and ague, repeating its attacks at regular intervals for a month or two, until the patient grows bloated, and bluish-white, and dies? The starved child, to satisfy its hunger, eats the clay on the banks of its river home, grows large-paunched, wastes away from poverty of blood, and dies. Even the adult at last, enemic from want of food, takes to earth-eating, and meets a like end. It is pitiful, and yet the native will loaf in his canoe day after day, too lazy to catch sufficient fish for himself and his family from a river teeming with them; too lazy to plant bananas and mandioca, or to cut down a few trees and let in sunshine upon his hut. Instead of this he will work in an indolent sort of way for a few months gathering rubber with which to buy the farina he should raise himself, and the cachaça, or native rum of sugar cane, which he should do without.

At a distance of somewhat less than two hundred miles above Gurupá begins one of the pleasantest portions of the Valley of the Amazon. Mountains rise high above the plain, and curve away to the northward until lost in the distant blue. A grassy plateau bounds their bases, offering wonderful pastures and splendid sites for towns. The peaks of Paytuna, Errere, and Jaury stand abruptly out of this plateau, their mammoth heads upheld, like the roof of an Egyptian temple, on clustered basaltic columns. These columns are so large as to be clearly distinguishable with the aid of a glass at a distance of twenty miles. Conspicuous and remarkable as these mountains are, it is said that no one has ever been known to ascend them, or even to approach so near as the open plateau at their bases. From this point the country immediately improves. Fields with cattle and horses grazing become frequent. Thrift is apparent in the fazendas, in the people themselves, in the use of whitewash on the houses, and in the cultivation of pretty gardens. This is in the vicinity of Montalegre. The efforts at husbandry, which had confined themselves to the north shore, soon become transferred to the south side, following the hills, which there form a series of ridges and valleys reaching to the Rio Tapajóz. It is worthy of remark that throughout the Valley of the Amazon it is precisely where Nature is least prodigal of her bounty, where hills, and clay, and rock raise obstacles in the way of man, that he exerts himself and prospers most.

The country drained by the Tapajóz is a favored region. It has a foundation of solid rock. It has fertile valleys and rich uplands. Rice, sugar-cane, cotton, corn, the best of the Northern vegetables, and all the tropical fruits constitute a portion of its productions. When certain disaffected Southerners fled to this spot after the fall of Richmond, rather than struggle with poverty in their devastated Northern homes, they evinced good judgment in their choice of land. They chose one of the garden spots of South America, but they reckoned with undue haste upon the possibility of enjoying it. Man is ever too prone to believe that the stubbornness of his fellows will yield to persuasion, and that to facilitate the development of a region he has but to call a mass-meeting and arouse enthusiasm with some stirring oratory, after which the matter will quickly get itself adjusted through the proper official channels. This is well enough in the United States, but it fails with a completeness, and man remains stubbornly opposed to progress with a persistency, in Brazil, which utterly confounds an American. It not only confounded, but handicapped and ruined, the unlucky emigrants to the Tapajóz. The city of Santarém, standing at the junction of this river and the Amazon, bears evidence of their presence in such things as the construction of a house heterodox in plan according to Brazilian standards; in a cart of improved design; in a Yankee windmill; in a man *on horseback;* and in certain other hints of a remembrance of whilom comforts in imitations and excuses for the originals exposed in the stores for sale. The new-comers tried to ship produce, but the export duties proved prohibitive; they tried to procure machinery for their own use, and the import taxes broke their purses. Goods were not allowed to go to Santarém in bond, and were pillaged by unscrupulous authorities of the Imperial Custom-house in Pará. Those who could, fled back again, preferring Northern poverty with the blessing of deliverance from such a Government. Those who could not flee have struggled on, seeking, if not to increase in riches, at least to build up homes where nature should yield plentifully, and distinguish them by their abundance from the shiftless race around them. There are said to be about sixty families of these Southerners and their descendants still living in the neighborhood of Santarém.

The country continues high on the northern shore, with an occasional broad, treeless savanna, all the way from here to the Rio Negro. The southern shore varies, now being hilly and having fine plantations, and again low and densely wooded. The whole region is underlaid by a brown vesicular sandstone, which strongly resembles lava on a first glance. It is so very rich in iron as to lead, together with other indications, to a suspicion that iron ore might be found if looked for, and if so it might be smelted by the coal said to exist along the Rio Tapajóz.

At present the towns of Obidos and Serpa, the chief settlements between Santarém and Manáos, depend upon cattle which are raised for the Pará market. The beeves are small, but very fat, and the meat is tender and good. Midway between Serpa and the Rio Negro the Rio Madeira enters the Amazon, a broad stream, flowing down between low, marshy islands. This is one of the most im-

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portant rivers in South America, already famous for its rubber and tobacco, and destined to be the avenue to the fertile plateau of Bolivia, when a railroad or a canal shall have been constructed around the rapids which now interrupt its channel. Thus will communication be established with the Rio Beni, a tributary of the Madeira, navigable for steamers far into that land-locked republic. The Rio Negro, about sixty-five miles west of the Madeira, comes down from the north, between hills of no mean height. Its waters, the color of strong Oolong tea, refuse at first to mingle with the yellow Amazon, and the two tides roll for some distance in alternate patches. This river also offers possibilities for future development. Its bounding forests produce the sweet, refreshing guaraná, so highly prized in Matto Grosso, the sarsaparilla, the native nutmeg, vanilla and tonka beans, piassaba, a strong elastic brown fibre from the palm Piassabeira, rubber, and infinite fruits, together with the Marapinima, or snake wood, and many of the finest timbers for nautical and cabinet purposes in the southern continent. The Rio Branco, descending to the Negro from the northeast, opens up a means of navigation almost to the Rio Essequibo in British Guiana. It has been suggested that, by means of a canal for barges of eight feet draught, goods could be sent from Georgetown via the Essiquibo and Branco into the Negro to Manáos, and thence up the Madeira into Bolivia, and also up the Amazon, or Solimões, into Peru. Along the Branco are extensive grassy plains where cattle are already raised, and these plains also strike southward in a broad belt through the interior, to within so short a distance of Manáos that there would be no great difficulty in constructing a railroad from ports in the Guianas to that city. The distance would be probably eight hundred miles, and the road would open up a region which might vie with the Argentine pampas for cattle, as well as affording access to the Mond and Tumac-Humac Mountains, whence much of the gold found in the sands of the rivers of Guiana is supposed to come. An English company had at one time subscribed capital for the initiation of this enterprise, but, failing to secure a favorable concession from the Imperial Government, the project was abandoned.

As previously stated, the Amazon above the entrance of the Rio Negro is called the Solimões. This part is properly the "basin" of the Valley of the Amazon. The land is submerged during several months of each year, causing a stunted growth of timber, and a considerable change in the aspect of vegetation in general, the prevailing tint of the forests here being a pale grayish green. The tributaries, however, descend from higher ground where conditions are more propitious. On the north side the Solimões receives the Japurá, a river fifteen hundred miles in length, and the Içа, or Putumayo, of eight hundred miles. From the south enter the Purús, fifteen hundred miles long, the Juruá and the Jutahy', each between five hundred and eight hundred miles, and the Javary, which for more than five hundred miles forms the boundary line between Brazil and Peru. All are great rubber-producers, and the output from the Purús is uniformly the best of all the rivers of Brazil. Formerly large quantities of sarsaparilla and salt fish were exported also from this region, but these industries have ceased. The bulk of all the rubber of Brazil comes from the Madeira and from these tributaries of the Solimões, and large quantities of it pass through the hands of Manaenses before reaching Pará. It will be perceived that Manáos is situated so as to command the choicest trade of the Valley of the Amazon, and according to that law of the growth of cities which affirms that it is the port admitting ocean-going vessels—and vesels of twenty-four feet draught can ascend to Manáos at all seasons of the year—which is at the same time nearest to the objects of trade, rather than the one nearest the foreign market, which naturally takes the lead, it was to be expected that Manáos would wrest the supremacy away from Pará. The only obstacle to the actual accomplishment of this is the lack of telegraphic connection with the outer world, and Pará, foreseeing the danger to her own interests, has determinedly refused to permit the laying of a cable. The Amazon, however, is open to the flags of all nations. Pará may prohibit a cable, but she cannot hinder a ship from the free use of the river. The chance Manáos has, then, is for some enterprising company to run a line up the Rios Negro and Branco, or across the plains into Guiana, and perhaps construct a railway for the sake of protecting the telegraph as much as for the trade the road would obtain. A cable, however, following the rivers Essequibo, Branco, and Negro, would require guarding for only a few miles across the mountains, where there are already many settlements. It would require less courage to carry this into execution than capitalists are now displaying in Peru, and the prospects of profit are almost, if not quite, equally tempting. With daily market reports from the great commercial centres of the world, Manáos would become one of the most important of the great cities that are certain to arise in the new era which is dawning upon South America.

Correspondence.

TO THE VOTERS BELONG THE SPOILS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Christopher Mamer, President Harrison's Collector of Internal Revenue for Chicago, recently discharged three women clerks from his office. Several friends of these women, knowing them to be competent and efficient clerks, went to Mr. Mamer to inquire the cause of the dismissal. The reply was that the women must all go; that the places were wanted for voters who could help the party. President Arthur's Collector left three women in the office; President Cleveland's Collector left eight; President Harrison's Collector has already discharged three of these, all of whom are Republicans in sympathy, and has declared to several well-known citizens his determination to send them all away, as he wanted the places for voters.

These facts coming to the knowledge of the Chicago Women's Club, a society of more than four hundred women, a delegation was sent to President Harrison with a remonstrance against Mr. Mamer's policy of excluding women from Government offices because they could not assist their superior officers with votes. The delegation was introduced by Congressman George Adams. President Harrison promised to give the subject careful consideration, but declined to state his own principles in regard to the matter. X.

Chicago, April 14, 1890.

THE DIME NOVEL AND THE POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to say that all fair-minded men rejoice with you to see the alarm expressed by the manufacturers of so-called yellow-backed literature on account of the House Bill No. 7558, and Senate Bill No. 2747, mentioned in your issue of April 17, "taking away the postal premium on the manufacture of dime-novel literature."

It is a well-known fact that the publication and distribution of this kind of cheap trash literature is the worst temptation and curse to which the youth of America are at the present time exposed. Nearly all their crimes may be directly or indirectly traced to its subtile and corrupting influences. I have before me an article clipped from Wednesday's issue of a Chicago daily, that bears the heading, "In Search of Adventure." It is the case of a bright, energetic youth of twelve leaving his home in Rochester, N. Y., and starting for Montana to kill Indians, rescue fair maidens, and to find gold nuggets. When intercepted by an officer at Chicago, and searched, there were found the usual equipments for such an enterprise: a 38-calibre revolver, a box of cartridges, and *four yellow-backed novels* with thrilling titles, only one of which I will give here: "Old Kit Brandy's Deliverance; or, Banner Ben, the Wildfire of the Prairie." It is needless to add, the boy was speedily returned to his parents.

This is but a mild case among the hundreds that occur constantly. It is to be regretted that your notice of the action of Congress on the matter of dime-novel literature is so brief. It certainly deserves a larger share of your attention than you have given it thus far. May we hope to hear more from you through your columns on this matter soon?

Yours very truly, Fred C. Clark.

Ann Arbor, Mich., April 18, 1890.

"A LESSON IN PHILOLOGY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Klemm's 'European Schools,' already reviewed, I think, in the *Nation*, is a very stimulating and suggestive book. There are American teachers who, in comparing methods and results set forth in the book with our own—at least in less favored parts of our country—will doubtless feel the chill of discouragement. To any such readers there is a crumb of comfort to be got out of "A Lesson in Philology" (p. 416), in a school of Alsace. More lessons than one might be gathered from this chapter.

The word in the sentence that called out the German teacher's display of philological learning was *Kleinod* (jewel). With the first part, *klein* (little), there was no difficulty. To explain the last part, the pupils were led, by a skilful use of the Socratic method, to *Odin*, the greatest god in German mythology, from whose name *od* was derived. To make plausible the connection of ideas, they were next made to see that *God* (*Gott*) and *good* (*gut*) were originally the same word; that *good* meant also a possession, as *Landgut*—from all which it was easy to see how *Kleinod* came to mean "a little possession."

Such guessing as this calls to mind Carlyle's derivation of *king* from "*könning*, which means canning, able-man"; or his half-hour discourse, as related by Mr. Conway, on "*fee*, as derived from Latin *fides*."

The last syllable of *Kleinod* is, in fact, the old Saxon or Low German *ôd*, meaning, 'property, wealth.' In Anglo-Saxon it appears in the form *ead*, as in *Eadweard* (Edward), the guardian of property. *Eadig* means wealthy, as in 'Beowulf,' line 2472, where it is said that Hrethel to his sons "laefde, swa deth eadig man, lond," etc. (left, as doth a wealthy man

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land, etc.). Another Low-German word in which this form appears is *allod* (all+od), in Med. Latin *allodium*, whence the adjective *allodial*, "held in absolute possession." The etymology of both these words is disputed, I know; but the derivation here given has the support of such high authority as Dr. Murray's New English Dictionary.

Of course, an inspiring teacher can make anything interesting, but the surprise is in this case that, almost in the very home of modern philology, popular etymology should have lingered so long in class-room instruction. A comparison of the forms in the various Teutonic tongues will show that *god* and *good* are quite different words. The word *god* was in use long before the conversion of our forefathers to Christianity, and in their primitive conception of a god or gods the quality of goodness was not conspicuous; in fact, the adjective *good* had not, at that early time, its present ethical sense.

If this friendly criticism, by calling attention to the book once more, will induce teachers to get it and read it, the lesson in philology will not be altogether without value.

EDWARD A. ALLEN.

UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

THE ACADEMIC SURPLUS OF GERMANY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has for years been universally known that Germany is encumbered with an academic surplus from which she apprehends serious danger. The question has been before the eyes of the public for the last fifteen years, but not until recently has it been subjected to a thorough examination by competent authorities. The Allgemeine Deutsche Realschulmännerverein, after having offered, a few years ago, a prize for the best essay on "The Afflux to the Learned Professions, its Causes and Possible Remedies," divided the prize between two papers, one by Fr. Pietzker and the other by P. Treutlein, both of which have now appeared in print (Brunswick: Otto Selle).

We learn from them that the number of students in the German universities was, in 1870, about 14,000, a number which had, in 1888, risen to 29,267. Considering that the population had, in the interval named, grown from 100 to 115 per cent., the number of students rose from 100 to 212 per cent. The number of available positions having practically remained the same, this caused a great excess of the supply over the demand in all the learned professions except the clerical. There are now barely enough Protestant clergymen, whereas it has been, down to the present day, impossible to supply the demand for Catholic priests. Most overcrowded are the *juristische* and the *philosophische Fakultäten*. The number of *Referendare* was 3,937 in 1883, and fell to 3,554 in 1887. Nevertheless, the number of *Assessoren* has been steadily growing. The Kultusminister von Gossler said, two years ago, in a session of the Prussian Chamber, that the Prussian State had at its command the "stately army" of 3,985 *Referendare* and 2,185 *Assessoren*. Treutlein calculates, with the aid of these figures, that every assessor has to wait at least six years for an appointment as judge, which makes a total of fifteen years from the day on which he graduates from the university!

Still worse off are, however, the candidates for positions in the higher schools. There were examined in 1879 384 candidates *pro facultate docendi*, in 1885 628, and in 1888 469. In 1887 there were, still according to Minister von Gossler, 1,834 candidates available for positions in the higher schools who had been duly on trial for a year, but were not appointed; of whom only 551 were regularly employed as assistants, 517 temporarily, and 769 not at all!

Both authors name as the first reason for the afflux to the learned professions the security of existence guaranteed by them even in cases of illness or disability to serve, and, after death, by virtue of pensions paid over to the families. Besides, the learned professions are, in Germany, a really privileged class, offering ranks and titles, and enjoying such consideration as is never bestowed upon the merchant or the manufacturer. The higher schools, our authors contend, are monopolized by the State. They have practically no other end than supplying the State with its officials. The State refuses to admit others to the universities than the graduates of the *Gymnasien*. Every ambitious youth desirous of acquiring the highest education his country affords is thus systematically driven to the gymnasium. There were in Germany, in 1886, 339 *Gymnasien*, 47 *Progymnasien*, 136 *Realgymnasien*, 107 *Realprogymnasien*, against only 16 *Oberrealschulen*, 67 *Realschulen*, and 87 *höhere Bürgerschulen*. It is only natural that many students enter the gymnasia, not for the love of study, but on account of the social and material advantages offered to the graduate of these institutions. The number of bona-fide students, of young men who bring to the school a disinterested love for study, is, besides, steadily increasing in this age of scientific research. It is, therefore, not astonishing that the higher schools should be overcrowded.

Both Pietzker and Treutlein deem a reorganization of these schools upon a different basis the only effective means for the prevention of a further growth of the "learned proletariat." Although differing as to minor details, they contend in the main for an abolition of the monopoly of the gymnasium, and a coordination of the "realistische" with the "humanistische" education. This, the authors think, would deprive the humanists of their prestige, encourage technical studies, and put an end to the odious classification and gradation of culture into "humanistisch" and "realistisch." It is, however, necessary to note that neither Pietzker nor Treutlein cherishes any hope for a realization of his plan in the near future, the Government standing tenaciously by the "alleinseligmachende" humanities.

T. H. C.

BOSTON, April 17, 1890.

THREE MODERNISMS.—II.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Ever* is a word which would call for a long disquisition, if it were undertaken to treat of all its various uses, and to bring out how, originally importing time only, it got to import ideas having no obvious connexion with time. These matters being here waived, notice may, however, be taken, incidentally, of *ever now and then*, dating at least from the fifteenth century. For, from this, by corruption, came *every now and then;* and, in the wake of *every now and then*, followed *every here and there*, which has no support from *everywhere*, whose etymology, as is well known, is indicated by *ever-ywhere*—that is to say, if we trace its constituents back to Anglo-Saxon, 'continually in every place.' And bare mention may also be made of occasional obsolete substitutes for *whoever* and *whatever*, namely, *who that* and *what that*, the former of which is found as late as 1612.

But my present concern is with *ever* as circumstanced in the sentences subjoined:

"*How ever* should I be able . . . to make room?" Sir G. W. Dasent, *Popular Tales from the Norse* (1859), p. 263.

"The Troll began to wonder . . . *how ever* they could be rid of the lad." *Ibid.*, p. 163.

"*What ever* has become of my eye?" *Ibid.*, p. 129.

"I wonder now *what ever* there can be inside this chest." *Ibid.*, p. 215.

"*Where ever* in the world have you been?" *Ibid.*, p. 12. Also at pp. 134, 269.

"The kitchen-maid clapped her hands in wonder, asking *where ever* he got all that gold and silver from." *Ibid.*, p. 136.

The idiom thus exemplified is a very modern one, and has, as yet, little currency other than conversational. In England it is freely employed, orally, by the educated, especially women, and even more freely by the uneducated, among whom, most likely, it originated. Its differentia consist in attaching to *ever*, after *how*, etc., the force of "indeed," "to be sure," or the like. That, in other contexts, as in the old "*or ever*, or *ere ever*, he came," and in "go as soon as *ever* you can," *ever* has this equivalence, is a point which it is needless to dwell on.

How ever, etc., and also *when ever*, *which ever*, and *who ever* (where *ever*, implying enforcement, is adjoined to principal or subordinate interrogatives), evidently are not compounds. Consequently, for distinction, it is advisable not to write them as if they were of that character. In putting *how ever*, I have followed Sir G. W. Dasent; and elsewhere, though deviating from him, I may appeal to his *what ever*, in *Gisli the Outlaw*, p. 95, and in *Tales from the Fjeld*, p. 305. We do not write *into*, where *in to* is meant, or *upon* for *up on*. On the other hand, the new preposition should be *onto*, not *on to*. In passing, *forever*, instead of *for ever*, is now peculiar to Americans; the old *can not* would well be reestablished; and the Scotch *daresay*, a reminder of the *shalbe* of former days, deserves no favour.

To, as in "I have not spoken to him, but I mean *to*," admits of being despatched at the expense of a very few lines.

The elliptical style of expression thus instanced, which does not seem to have been at all common until within the last generation or two, is perhaps traceable to a misunderstanding of constructions like those in the passages following:

"I intreated Aristides and Ariana to give leave that I might returne to succour you, *which they were very willing to.*" Anon., *Ariana* (1636), p. 122.

"Having enquir'd of me *all he had a minde to*, I satisfied him with the most respect I could." *Ibid.*, p. 218.

"There are a thousand artful ways by which subtle orators may prepossess men, raise their pity, anger, jealousy, or *any passion they have a mind to*," etc. Bernard Mandeville, *Free Thoughts on Religion*, etc. (1720), p. 322 (ed. 1729).

In these quotations we have obsoletisms, but, in those now to be given, mere slovenliness:

"And look you, continues he, how those Gypsies manage the People that came in first, and lead them whither they have a mind *to*." Rev. Jeremy Collier, *Marcus Antoninus*, etc. (1701), p. 246.

"Going no oftener in to the shore than we were obliged *to*, for fresh water," etc. Daniel De Foe, *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), vol i., p. 33 (ed. 1840).

"Certain it is that I compose much more slowly than I was wont *to*, when younger." Southey (1823), *Letters* (1856), vol. iii., p. 385.

"You may laugh, if you want *to*, very much, John." Charles Dickens (1836), *Plays and Poems* (1882), vol. i., p. 187.

"You may keep it; I don't expect *to*."

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Anon. (1839), in Miss Caroline Fox's *Memories of Old Friends* (1882), p. 38.

"It is my firm belief she cried nearly twice as much as she really wanted *to*." Charles Reade, *Christie Johnstone* (1853), p. 97.

"As for human beings outside of them, I never see any, and don't want *to*." Lord Strangford (1866), *Selection*, etc. (1869), vol. ii., p. 319.

"The only satisfaction I have for my wrong is knowing that nobody else can look at it; and, if nobody else wanted *to*, I shouldn't even have that." Mr. John Ruskin, *Fors Clavigera*, i., p. 10 (1871).

"I know nothing which members of Parliament kill, except time, which other people would not kill, if they were allowed *to*." *Id.*, *ibid.*, xxv., p. 31 (1873).

"My correspondent will perhaps be surprised to hear that I have never in my life voted for any candidate for Parliament, and that I never mean *to*." *Id.*, *ibid.*, xxix., p. 27 (1873).

"I was altogether responsible for taking care not *to*." *Id.*, *ibid.*, xxxvii., p. 3 (1874).

"Papa and mamma and aunt Davilow all wish her not *to*." "George Eliot," *Daniel Deronda* (1876), vol. i., p. 115.

I have here been dealing with what Prof. Schele de Vere, in his *Americanisms*, calls, every way erroneously, "the American use of *to* as a kind of *expletive*. In England, "I don't wish *to*," or the like, is heard constantly, and from persons of all classes of society.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, October 30, 1889.

P. S. With Lord Beaconsfield's "I *have* never *been* back *to* the old place," spoken of at the beginning of this letter, consistent headlongness has bracketed, as an object of derision, his: "I would never leave him for a moment, *only* I know he would get wearied of me." *Only*, where, as here, made almost convertible with *but that*, *were it not for the fact that*, is, however, no more a solecism than it is a novelty, as a few quotations, culled from a large number collected, will suffice to make evident:

"It hath not beene knowne that they haue practised any treason against them, *onely* their Histories report that they sought to poison their king called Ticocic." E. G[rimstone ?], *Naturall and Morall Historie*, etc. (1604), p. 484.

"Thus, like the Children of Israel, we are come out of Egypt into the Wildernesse, *onely* we have the flesh-pots still, and, therefore, none of the Manna." Robert Loveday (about 1650), *Letters* (ed. 1663), p. 264.

"It was of a Vermilian colour like blood, *onely* in some places there was a mixture of white streakes like milke." *Comical History of Francion* (1655), I.-III., p. 56.

"But the truth is, these things do not much trouble me, *only* I am offended with the Kenopistians." Nathanael Ingelo, D.D., *Bentivolio and Urania* (1660), vol. i., p. 126 (ed. 1682).

"He much resembled his Father in Manners, as also in his Countenance, *only* he was not so curled, nor so flat nosed." Rev. Obadiah Walker, *Greek and Roman History Illustrated* (1692), p. 291.

"The duke, after some ceremony, entered the castle in complete armour, *only* his head was bare in compliment to the fallen king." Oliver Goldsmith, *History of England, in Letters* (1764), vol. i., p. 154 (ed. 1772).

"She is a sweet lady, *only* she was so glad to see me go, that I have almost a mind to come again, that she may again have the same pleasure." Dr. Johnson, *Letter* (March 5, 1774).

"My fellow-travellers were the same whom you saw at Lichfield, *only* we took Baretti with us." *Id.*, *Letter* (November 16, 1775).

"Every narrative of events digested according to years may admit of this title in the larger sense, *only* it does not follow, from this, that a history like that of Tacitus should not observe the same arrangement," etc. Bp. Connop Thirlwall, in the *Philological Museum*, vol. ii., p. 662 (1833).

Possibly, in some of these passages *only* might rather be replaced, approximately, by *but* simply: I say approximately, because *only* is more distinctly limitative. Passages, dating from 1599 downwards, in which *only* is equipollent to *but* qualified are at hand in abundance; and passages from Southey, Prof. F. W. Newman, and others, are producible in which *only that* signifies nearly the same as *but that*, *if it were not that*.

Only employed conjunctionally will, of course, be recorded by Dr. Murray. As having escaped Dr. Johnson and all his other predecessors, it is no great curiosity.

Among the items of phraseology which the criticaster on whom I have been animadverting impugns, is Miss Yonge's "Theodora *flung* away and was rushing off," written, we are told with an air of surprise, "as long ago as 1854." With this supposed atrocity he also cites Mr. Charles Reade's "Wardlaw *whipped* before him," and "[Little] *flung* out of the room." "These and similarly incomplete sentences," he goes on to comment, "certainly strike the American ear as decided innovations, and constitute a peculiarity of diction very rarely to be observed on this side of the water." Leaving undiscussed what is here assumed as a grammatical fact, and what is stated as a historical, I would merely ask whether, in reason, an English expression which has not been countersigned by Americans is, on that account, to be condemned. For the rest, the venerable age of what, at least to one abnormally deaf "American ear," are "decided innovations," on the part of Miss Yonge and Mr. Reade, those whom it may concern shall be put in the way of knowing:

"Metellus . . . came *flyngyng* home to Roome again, as wyse as a capon." Rev. Nicholas Udall, *Apophthegmes* (1542) fol. 307*v*.

"Cecropia grew so angry, . . . and so *flang* away from her." Sir Philip Sidney, *Arcadia* (1580), p. 275 (ed. 1613).

"Unnaturall and rebellious Children, who have *flung* out of the Church." Sir Edwin Sandys, *Europæ Speculum* (1599), p. 218 (ed. 1637).

How often the intransitive *fling away*, *fling out*, etc., must have occurred between 1600 and the beginning of this century, may be inferrible from a few references, here necessarily particularized only in part:

Fling, without adjunct. Rev. Thomas Vaughan (1650).

Fling away. Lady Mary Wroth (1621), Rev. J. Carter (1627), William Browne (1647), Samuel Holland (1656), Dr. Henry More (1672), Oliver Goldsmith (1760). "The Chancellor . . . *flung away* in a rage, and was followed by some of the minority." Lord Macaulay, *History of England*, ch. viii. (1848).

Fling down. Rev. James Beresford (1792).

Fling from. Lady Mary Wroth (1621), W. D. (1627), Dr. Henry More (1672), Mrs. Frances Sheridan (1761), Mrs. A. M. Bennet (1786).

Fling into and *fling on*. William Browne. (1647).

Fling out. Lady Mary Wroth (1621), W. D. (1627), *Francion* (1655), Rev. Nathanael Ingelo (1660). "She *flung out* of the room," etc. Mrs. Eliza Heywood, *The History of Miss Betsy Thoughtless* (1751), vol. i., pp. 34, 192, 269; vol. ii., pp. 61, 153; vol. iv., pp. 156, 224. Mrs. Charlotte Lennox (1758), Mrs. Frances Sheridan (1761), Charles Johnston (1763), Mrs. Eliza Parsons (1793).

Fling round. Charles Cotton (1665).

Fling through and *fling up*. William Browne (1647).

Respecting the intransitive verb *whip*, which can be unfamiliar to scarcely any one, I confine myself to proving that already in the days of Queen Elizabeth it was no upstart:

"Rennyng and *whippyng* about from place to place." Rev. Nicholas Udall, *Apophthegmes* (1542), fol. 69 *v*.

"At the length he *whippeth* out of the coffyn." Rev. Thomas Key (before 1547), *Erasm. Paraphrase* (1548), *Mark*, fol. 41 *r*.

"*Whips* backward." Rev. Richard Stanyhurst, *Aeneis* (1582), p. 45 (ed. 1836).

This verb has, indeed, been in our language ever since the thirteenth century. See Nicolas de Guildford's *Owl and Nightingale* (ed. 1843), v. 1064.

Notes.

LEA BROTHERS & Co., Philadelphia, have in press a volume of essays by Mr. Henry C. Lea, entitled 'Chapters from the Religious History of Spain.' They are upon subjects connected with the Spanish Inquisition, and meriting a more elaborate treatment than could be accorded them in the continuous narrative of the Inquisition which Mr. Lea has in preparation.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make the welcome announcement of a new and complete edition of the works of James Russell Lowell, which the public, however, must accept in a large-paper edition in ten volumes limited to three hundred copies for America. The prose works fill six of the ten, and are thus distributed: Literary Essays (4), Political Essays (1), Literary and Political Addresses (1). These will contain some matter hitherto uncollected. As for the Poems, they too have been carefully revised, and the Biglow Papers annotated for the benefit of a posterity too remote from their allusiveness. An index to the prose, and a table of first lines to the poetry, complete the scheme of this *monumentum ære perennius*. The issue will be effected during the present year.

Under the advisory editorship of Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie, Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. announce a new biographic-historic series on the "Makers of America." The obvious first maker, Columbus, will be portrayed by President Adams of Cornell. The sixteenth century is entirely passed over in the list thus far decided upon, and the Puritan leaders come next in order. The founders of New York, of Maryland, of Georgia, with La Salle and Bienville, mark the extension of civilized government over the continent. The following names speak for themselves: Jefferson (by James Schouler), Hamilton (by Prof. Sumner), Charles Sumner; Bishop White of Pennsylvania, Bishop Hughes of New York, Robert Fulton. It will be seen that the term "makers" has a wide scope; will it perhaps include some "unmakers"?

Fourteen representative public men of the South, most of them members of Congress, and each speaking for the State with whose history he is most familiar and of whose history he is a part, have joined in writing a book, now in press, styled 'Why the Solid South? or, Reconstruction and its Results.' Since the publication of 'The Prostrate State,' no book, we believe, has appeared detailing the *post-bellum* measures and practices adopted in the Southern States. In order to avoid even the appearance of a campaign document, the various writers have, it is said, been urged by Representative Herbert of Alabama, who is the general editor, to take special pains to verify every important piece of testimony, and to bear in mind the power of understatement. Virginia is represented in this book by Mr. Robert Stiles, West Virginia by Mr. O. S. Long and Representative Wilson, North Carolina by Senator Vance, South Carolina by Representative Hemphill, Georgia by Representative Turner, Florida by Senator Pasco, Alabama by Representative Herbert, Mississippi by ex-Representative Barksdale, Louisiana by Mr. B. J. Sage, author of 'The Republic of Republics,' Tennessee by Mr. Ira P. Jones, Arkansas by Mr. W. M. Fishback, Texas by Representative Stewart, Missouri by Senator Vest.

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Henry Holt & Co. have undertaken a series of small volumes of representative selections from the leading philosophers, from Descartes down. Each volume will contain a biographical sketch of the author, a statement of the historical place of his system, and a bibliography. Dr. E. N. Sneath of Yale, the projector of the series, will treat of Hume, Prof. Ladd of Descartes, President Porter of Berkeley, Prof. Royce of Hegel, etc.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law,' by Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia College.

A manual on the 'Reproduction of Geographical Forms,' by Jacques W. Redway, is announced by D. C. Heath & Co.

Zola's country house is at Médan, and there his followers gathered about him, and sent forth, nearly ten years ago, 'Les Soirées de Médan,' a volume containing six stories by Zola himself, and by J. K. Huysmans, Henry Céard, Léon Hennique, Paul Alexis, and Guy de Maupassant—whose contribution was the extraordinary tale of 'Boule-de-Suif,' not translated by Mr. Sturges in 'The Odd Number,' for reasons by no means odd. An illustrated edition is now announced, with portraits of the six authors etched by M. Desmoulins, and with an illustration to each story by M. Jeanniot, etched by M. Muller (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern).

The first of six volumes illustrating the relief sculpture of ancient sarcophagi, undertaken by the Imperial German Archæological Institute, is about to appear, under the title of 'Die Antiken Sarkophag-Reliefs' (Berlin: G. Grote; New York: Christern). It stands second on the list, which runs as follows: Human life; mythologic cycles; separate myths; Bacchic round; muses, nereids, etc.; decorative motives. It will have sixty-five full-page illustrations on copper and in photogravure, besides many others in the text, and will cost 225 marks.

To cope with all the text-books which are presented to us is out of the question. To enumerate merely is difficult, even if we deal with series. Take French texts, for example. We have from W. R. Jenkins his "Romans Choisis," among which we cite No. 13, Jules Verne's 'Tour du Monde,' and No. 15, Jules Sandeau's 'La Maison de Penarvan'; the same publisher's annotated "Classiques Français," as, Racine's 'Andromaque,' Corneille's 'Horace,' and Molière's 'Bourgeois Gentilhomme'; Carl Schoenhof's monthly "Édition Berlitz" of comedies, novels, monologues etc., as, A. Dreyfus's one-act comedy, "La Gifle," and Delacour and Erny's "Le Retour du Japon"; D. C. Heath & Co.'s issues of Lamartine's 'Jeanne d'Arc,' Piron's "La Métromanie," and 'Sept Grands Auteurs du Dix-Neuvième Siècle,' by Prof. Alcée Fortier (lectures in French, rather expository than critical, on Hugo, Musset, De Vigny, etc.), with a 'Primer of French Literature,' by F. M. Warren (a syllabus of lectures, and frankly criticised by the author himself in his preface). There remain a condensation of Dumas's 'Trois Mousquetaires,' edited with notes by Prof. F. C. Sumichrast (Ginn & Co.); and 'Les Poètes Français du XIXe. Siècle,' by C. Fontaine (W. R. Jenkins), consisting of selections with biographical introductions and explanatory footnotes.

The German list is but a little shorter, beginning with "Heath's Modern Language Series," which embraces Lessing's "Minna von Barnhelm," Goethe's 'Sesenheim' (from 'Dichtung und Wahrheit'), Freytag's 'Aus dem Staat Friedrichs des Grossen,' Hoffmann's 'Historische Erzählungen,' Holberg's 'Niels Klim's Wallfahrt in die Unterwelt,' etc.—all these more or less annotated. Chr. von Schmid's 'Heinrich von Eichenfels' belongs in "Macmillan's Series of Foreign School Classics," Chamisso's 'Peter Schlemihl's Wundersame Geschichte' in the Clarendon Press Series (Macmillan), as does also, under the editorship of Emma S. Buchheim, a graduated collection of 'German Poetry for Beginners.'

By chance "Macmillan's Classical Series" brings together on our table three of the most companionable of Latin authors — Plautus, "Amphitruo," Pliny, Books i. and ii. of the Letters, and Tacitus, Books iii., iv., v. of the Histories—in handy form. From the same publishers come 'Legends of Ancient Rome, from Livy,' by Herbert Wilkinson, with notes, a vocabulary, and exercises upon the text; 'A First Latin Verse Book,' by W. E. P. Pantin, which must be lonesome on this side of the Atlantic; the second part of a 'Latin Course,' by A. M. Cook, of which the plan of prose composition is worth examining; and 'Roman Literature,' by Prof. A. S. Wilkins, one of a line of Literature Primers, and to be commended for its readableness and skilful presentation of biographic data. Another play of Plautus's, the "Menæchmi," has been edited with very copious notes by Harold N. Fowler for the "Student's Series of Latin Classics," published by Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, who place in the same series Part ii. of Daniell's 'Exercises in Latin Prose Composition,' in connection with the authors read—a sound principle. Finally, we must mention 'Gradatim,' an easy Latin translation book for beginners, by English masters, edited for American use (Boston: Allyn & Bacon).

The 'Birds' of Aristophanes, edited for the Clarendon Press Series by W. W. Merry, and the oration of Æschines against Ctesiphon, edited by Prof. R. B. Richardson of Dartmouth, for the "College Series of Greek Authors" (Ginn & Co.), form part of our Greek contingent. In the American series the notes are on the same page with the text, both in very clear print; but the text by itself is furnished with the annotated volume. The title of Mr. J. Y. Sargent's 'Models and Materials for Greek Iambic Verse' (Macmillan) conceals, first, an anthology from the Greek, classified alphabetically, without indication of the source; second, an equally unindicated English anthology, with references to corresponding passages in the Greek poets; and finally a general index of reference to the several themes, Absence, Age, Anger, Dreams, Love, Native Land, etc. The collection is more likely in this country to find favor intrinsically, among those who have mastered Greek, than as an instrument of instructing schoolboys. For prose composition, the method of the same author's 'Exemplaria Græcia' (Macmillan) is to be commended; and much may be learned from Mr. F. G. Allinson's 'Greek Prose Composition' (connected and not fragmentary), published by Allyn & Bacon. The same house have issued a revised edition, entirely rewritten, of Robert F. Pennell's 'Ancient Greece,' with maps, a chronology, and lists of examination papers in Greek history.

We have already noticed the first part of Mr. Donald G. Mitchell's 'English Lands, Letters and Kings' (Scribners), of which a second volume is now received. The period covered is from Elizabeth to Anne, including both reigns, and it is treated with competent knowledge and discriminating taste; but the text is most attractive from its agreeable and cultivated tone. Mr. Mitchell is less a critic than a lover of literature and of England, and he succeeds, therefore, in avoiding the severer matter which makes hard reading, and in narrating pleasantly the main story of the men and their days. It is preëminently a volume for the general and unlearned reader to use in making acquaintance with English literature, though it needs to be supplemented continually by some reading in the original authors mentioned.

A notable example of careful bookmaking may be found in Bulletins 48 and 50 of the United States Geological Survey. All these bulletins are carefully edited, but the above are particularly successful in saving trouble to the reader. No. 50, on 'Formulas and Tables to Facilitate the Construction and Use of Maps,' by R. S. Woodward, is a model which many authors of tabular publications may pattern after. Every table is headed by reference to the section in which its derivation is stated, and to the page on which its use is explained. No. 48, on 'The Form and Position of the Sea Level,' by the same author, actually opens with a key to the mathematical symbols used in it; these symbols being arranged alphabetically, with brief definition and reference to the page where each one is first introduced. This is an evidence of regard for the user of the book that we have never seen equalled. The difficulty of making reference to mathematical essays is greatly increased by the general absence of such a key. Contents and index are, of course, included also. The essay itself is of particular value in regard to the discussions of recent years concerning the possible deflection of sea level by the lateral attraction of continental masses or of glacial sheets.

The 'Geology of the Island of Mt. Desert, Maine,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler, is a paper of some sixty pages, reprinted from the eighth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey. It is furnished with two maps and thirty-four illustrations, full page and other. Besides its scientific importance, it has an interest for the general reader, and, dealing as it does with a place of popular resort, should be made easy of access as well to the summer visitor as to the student.

Students of morphology will find an excellent piece of work in 'Studies on Lepidosteus,' by Prof. E. L. Mark. It forms No. 1 of Vol. xix of the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, and itself makes a pamphlet of 127 pages with nine plates. The researches on the structure and growth of the egg membranes are especially important. This paper forms a valuable addition to the series on the Gar Pike begun by Prof. Alex. Agassiz, and continued by Balfour, Parker, and others. The most acceptable food for the young gars was young mosquitoes. As is well known, the latter form one of the most valuable food supplies for young fishes generally; the mosquito thus being to the fisherman a best friend and a greatest annoyance.

The late W. J. Thoms, an English writer, sceptical as to cases of extreme longevity, published a book designed to prove a negative, namely, that there was no authentic case of a century of human life, at least within modern times. Now comes another Englishman, Dr. George M. Humphry, in his book on 'Old Age' (Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes), with an account of seventy-four recognized centenarians included among nearly nine hundred persons who had attained the age of eighty. The information concerning all these is derived from a collective Investigation Committee of the British Medical Association, and the interesting physiological comments are made by Dr. Humphry as editor. He looks upon those most likely to live long as thus qualified: (1) by inheritance, (2) by being well developed and of good proportion, and hence (3) by degenerative

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changes occurring slowly, and (4) by temperance in all things. Dr. Humphry is of opinion that the reparative power of the aged is much greater than is generally supposed, and that old age is usually accompanied by serenity of disposition and happiness. All this points in confirmation of the comfortable theory broached by Mr. Hale some years ago, that the three score and ten of the Psalmist indicated not the extreme limit of years for the individual, but an average of vigor which any generation might reasonably expect to attain.

We record with pleasure the completion of the tenth volume of the *Dial* (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). Among our literary journals it is unique in being wholly devoted to critical reviews, partly signed, partly unsigned, and in being a monthly. It has been well conducted from the start, with a serious purpose, and with much learned and intelligent collaboration, and we have had frequent occasion to praise it and to wish it a long life. Of generally even quality, in the department of the minor notices there is a falling off in carefulness and weight, as is apt to be the case. The *Dial* is handsomely and correctly printed.

Recent numbers of the *American Meteorological Journal* contain accounts of the meteorological instruments at the Paris Exhibition and of the International Hydrological and Climatological Congress at Paris last year, by A. Lawrence Rotch. Notes are added on the observations of temperature taken on the Eiffel Tower during the summer, which prove to be of much value in meteorological theory.

Part 20 of "Stieler's Hand-Atlas" (Westermann) contains plates of South Africa, Australia, and Mexico; most interesting, all, to compare with the corresponding maps issued in 1880, especially for the development of the railroad systems of the respective countries.

A portion of the field of Gettysburg denominated "The Slaughter Pen" is the most interesting plate in *Sun and Shade* for March (Photo-Gravure Co.), and is quite as picturesque as any. An appropriate companion is the plate of Gatling guns.

The *Southland*, published monthly at Salisbury, N. C., was begun in February, and as an organ of colored Americans should be favorably regarded. The editorial portion is creditable in spirit and in style; the contributed matter is exuberantly rhetorical and imaginative. *Southland* says that a National Colored Chautauqua is under consideration.

The index to volume one of the daintily printed *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries* (Horncastle, England), accompanies the April issue, which is the second part of volume two. Amid much purely local matter one is likely to find something possessing a cis-Atlantic interest, and the April number begins a summary account of Capt. John Smith, a Lincolnshire worthy, whose well-known portrait from 'A Description of New England' serves as a frontispiece.

The University of Toronto certainly merits all the generous aid it is receiving to repair its recent losses by fire, but the Italian *Riforma* goes a step too far in making it the polishing-off institution for North American culture, owing to the defects of the higher education in the United States ("L'Università canadense di Toronto era la più frequentata, corrispondeva a molti bisogni, e colmava una lacuna nell' educazione superiore nord-americana").

— A new work by an author so long dead as De Foe is an unusual occurrence, yet the belated volume has come at last, 'The Compleat English Gentleman' (London: David Nutt), edited by Dr. Karl D. Bülbring from the British Museum MS. It was written in the last years of De Foe's life, and a few pages were printed off in proofs, and, after passing from collector to collector, it is now given to the public. The work was conceived in two parts, one treating of the gentleman by birth, the other the gentleman by breeding; of these only the first and one chapter of the second were completed. The editing has been done with great care, the MS. being followed almost letter for letter, with the few corrections made noted at the foot of the page; an excellent introduction and some notes with an index are also furnished. The work itself is not at all an account of what constitutes a gentleman, but is, in fact, a plea for the education of the eldest sons of the gentry. Its value now is mainly historical, and in this regard it supports powerfully the picture of the illiteracy of the upper class as described by Macaulay. The younger sons were educated because they were to make their way; the heirs were abandoned to the estate, the dogs, and the company of one another, partly because learning was still thought unbefitting a gentleman, and partly for the curious reason that education might pave the way for public employment, tempt the sons into politics, and so ruin the families in the changes of affairs. A better spirit, however, was already beginning to prevail. The charge brought against the English gentry is heavy enough in De Foe's hand, but he also attacks the schools and universities for their pedagogic character and their attachment to mediæval methods and the cult of the ancient languages. The unpractical character of education was one reason why it was thought unnecessary except for a profession. De Foe was also far from admitting that a man could be a gentleman by merit. He required money and freedom from lucrative employment, in case the man had not birth, before he would allow him to be a gentleman, or else the calling of an officer in the army or navy or of a clergyman. Trade must stand at a remove of one or two generations. This comes out more particularly in the one interesting chapter on the new families lately entered among the landed gentry. The style is admirable in diction, of course, and, though often involved and always diffuse, is refreshing. The volume was well worth publication merely for its view of English manners and morals in the upper class of that time.

—The Geological Society of America, organized a year ago, held its first regular meeting at Toronto last summer in connection with the annual gathering of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, from whose geological section the Society is in a sense an outgrowth. A more serious and very successful meeting of the Society was held in New York in Christmas week, well attended and of much value from the high quality of the papers presented and the pleasant association that it afforded. The proceedings of both meetings are now in course of publication and in a form that merits the attention of scientific men in general. Prompt appearance is a prime consideration in such matters, and this is secured by issuing each paper singly as soon as it can be completed. An author whose manuscript and illustrations are in good form when presented to the Council of the Society, does not have to wait for the completion of the unfinished or elaborate work of another. Each part is issued in uniform style, with complete statement as to its place in the volume which the whole will ultimately form. The additional expense of separate covers and postage for the several parts is a small matter compared with the gain ensuing from their speedy appearance. The quality of the essays thus far published is notably good. The orographic movements in the Rocky Mountains are discussed by S. F. Emmons of our Geological Survey, and the vast amount of material gathered in that field during the last thirty years is here presented in compact form, of great value to the student and explorer. Glacial phenomena in Canada are described by Robert Bell, assistant director of the Geological Survey of Canada; this is distinctly the most valuable paper on the subject that has yet been published. Others of similarly high quality might be referred to. The next meeting of the Society will be held with that of the American Association in Indianapolis next August.

—The current number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* contains a long article by Dr. Von Holst upon Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' With some qualifications, which we summarize, the verdict is warmly favorable. "I do not hesitate to express the conviction," says Von Holst, "that the 'American Commonwealth' is one of the most remarkable and valuable works in the field of political science which the nineteenth century has produced." Mr. Bryce's method is criticised as better adapted for analysis than for conveying a clear, well-defined impression of the whole range of phenomena. The picture would have gained in life, clearness, and plasticity by a freer treatment of the material. To express it with some exaggeration, we have a series of anatomical preparations, rather than a living organism, before our eyes. The effect upon the reader is something like that of a kaleidoscope. If the great ability of the author has failed to produce a good combination of effects, how will the ordinary reader fare in the task of making up his judgment? The difficulty becomes serious in the chapters on "Public Opinion," when, properly to grasp the bearing of the matters discussed, one has to keep in mind a vast mass of facts previously stated. Von Holst thinks Mr. Bryce ought to have gone more thoroughly into the legal aspects of the Constitution, at least in his work of preparation. In that case he would hardly have ventured the conjecture that a European cabinet might have solved the slavery question, whereas, in the American Congress, "it was the function of no one authority in particular to discover a remedy, as it would have been the function of a cabinet in Europe." Under the social, economic, and legal conditions, says Von Holst, no cabinet, though made up of statesmen of genius, could have essentially changed the course of events. This and some other expressions of opinion give Von Holst a haunting feeling that Mr. Bryce has not bestowed adequate study upon the political history of the United States. He is evidently familiar with it to a certain degree, but it has not been so wrought over, meditated upon, and digested that the whole, with its variety of details, has a flesh-and-blood vitality that guides and controls his judgment of American political life. This is asking a good deal, but not too much of one who would perform the task which Mr. Bryce has set himself. Von Holst regrets that Mr. Bryce has avoided a discussion of the negro question, and feels that the real reason is not restriction of space, but because he has not thoroughly studied it.

—The latter portion of the article protests against the rather cavalier treatment of the foreign element in the United States. The causes are, inadequate knowledge and race bias. Mr. Bryce wholly underestimates the influence of the foreign population on the American character. For example, according

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to Mr. Bryce, the German influence has done little more than to stimulate brewing, retard prohibition, increase outdoor life, the taste for music, and to relax Sunday observance. Von Holst affirms that the German-Americans are contributing most valuable elements to the national life. In the feverish intensity of American activity, they, with their moderate and sober ideals, quiet and steady energy, and modest self-confidence, act as a wholesome leaven. The American spirit of enterprise is unique, but it easily verges into unrestrained venturesomeness; the elasticity of spirit and temper displayed by the Americans in changes of fortune is impressive, but it runs great risk of degenerating into mere lightheartedness or even frivolity. The attitude of the Germans towards prohibition is based on principle, and is a wholesome stand against the tendencies of majorities to dictate to the minority in matters properly belonging within the field of personal rights. The cause of true temperance has not suffered from German example. The religious influence of the Germans has been marked. It is true they are breaking down the Sabbath; but as they are a people of a morally sound nature, the Americans are brought face to face with the fact that a developed sense of moral responsibility is not exclusively derived from belonging to a church, and that church membership and morality are not identical terms. That expands their outlook. The rigidity of Puritan ecclesiasticism is giving way. A general transformation in popular religious thought and feeling is in progress. Life is becoming fuller and freer. Mr. Bryce also totally fails to appreciate the political influence of the Germans in the years preceding and during the civil war. Mr. Bryce thinks the Germans are Republicans because the Irish are Democrats. He seems never to have heard that the Germans were usually Democrats until about 1850. When the slavery struggle took on its final shape, their love of freedom, not hostility to the Irish, led the Germans, and particularly the "Forty-eighters," to desert the Democratic party. In Missouri their influence was probably decisive against secession. This failure to appreciate the foreign element, to discuss the negro, Mormon, tariff, and civil-service reform questions, the relations of capital and labor, such phenomena as the Pittsburgh and Cincinnati riots, the Chicago Anarchists, the Knights of Labor, and the George movement, deprive Mr. Bryce's picture of American society of completeness. Greatly as his book has enriched the literature on the United States, there still remains to be written a more complete and penetrating presentation of American life, which shall of full right bear the title of 'The American Commonwealth.' The key to the American Commonwealth is not to be found in its political life, but in its social life. With Americans the State is thoroughly subordinated to society. Mr. Bryce has not fully grasped this fact.

— One of the most eminent, as well as one of the last, of the critics of the generation of 1830, disappears in the death of M. Armand de Pontmartin, which took place at Avignon in the last days of March. M. de Pontmartin was born at Avignon in 1811, and came back to live in his province after the Revolution of July. He made his débuts as a writer in the *Gazette du Midi*, in the *Quotidienne*, and in the *Mode*, a queer journal in which fashion-plates, political epigrams, and ardent Catholicism were strangely mingled. From these he proceeded to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which for forty years his contributions have been marked by their caustic wit, and elegance and distinction of style. For the last twenty-three years he has written the weekly *feuilletons* in the *Gazette de France*, one of which appeared on the day on which his death was announced. It was his habit, the *Temps* says, to keep well ahead of his work, and the *Gazette* has now in store enough of his articles to furnish the *feuilletons* of the next three months. At the time of his death it had already printed 1,153 of the series. Besides his newspaper work, M. de Pontmartin wrote several stories and novels, none of which were ever famous. Perhaps the best known of these was his 'Jeudis de Mde. Charbonneau,' in which he drew the portraits of several of his brothers in literature, who appeared under transparent pseudonyms. He was by birth and education an intense royalist and aristocrat, and in his personal appearance is said to have presented the singular combination of the almost gigantic stature and harsh face and enormous moustache of a musketeer with a voice of more than feminine delicacy and weakness.

RECENT MATHEMATICAL WORKS.

Treatise on Analytical Mechanics. By Bartholomew Price, Sedleian Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Oxford. Vol. II. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Graphical Statics. By Luigi Cremona, Foreign Member R. S. London, etc., etc., Professor of Mathematics in the University of Rome, Italy. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

An Elementary Treatise on the Method of Least Squares, with Numerous Examples of its Applications. By George C. Comstock, Professor of Astronomy in the University of Wisconsin, and Director of the Washburn Observatory. Boston: Ginn & Co.

PROF. PRICE'S second volume of his 'Analytical Mechanics' is also the fourth volume of his 'Treatise on Infinitesimal Calculus.' The four volumes together constitute the most extensive and profound treatise on the Calculus existing in the English language. The only work to be compared with it is that of De Morgan; but the spirit, the methods, and the construction of the two works are so entirely dissimilar that they can never be regarded as rivals. For those students who wish to sound the profoundest depths of the Calculus, the desirability of each work is enhanced by the existence of the other.

There are certain characteristics of Prof. Price's treatise which it possesses in a higher degree than any mathematical work of equal extent with which we are acquainted, in any language. A more uniform, self-consistent work was never written. Its sub-title is "Dynamics of a Material System"; and whether he is treating of the "precession and nutation of the earth" (p. 407), or of the "initial motion of a billiard ball when struck by a cue" (p. 470), the method and the form of the investigation are always, so far as it is possible, the same. He starts out in his first chapter with a certain form of the equations of motion according to D'Alembert's principle, and all subsequent processes are but examples of their application, and all subsequent purposes are accomplished by their application. Short methods for abridging work, special artifices, however ingenious, unusual demonstrations, however "elegant," are all thrown aside, and with the measured tread of a giant along one straight road he strides through his six hundred pages of dynamical science. As in the substance, so in the form, there is the same uniformity and consistency. So far as it is possible, the same symbols are invariably used to express the same ideas. If we open the book in its last quarter and see a formula expressed in certain letters of the Greek alphabet, we may be pretty sure that those letters mean the same thing that they did the first time they were used in the first quarter of the book. We have no room to point out the immense advantages of such a system. After reading several extended portions of the work, we have been at each step more and more astonished—we can find no other fitting word to express our meaning—at the success of Prof. P[redacted] in realizing his ideal, which, in his own words, was "the construction of a uniform scientific treatise, pervaded by one idea, and applying one principle."

A word as to this second edition. The principle and arrangement are the same as in the first edition, but it has been thoroughly revised and corrected, and considerably enlarged. This revision was aided by a somewhat remarkable circumstance. Prof. Price says: "The late Mr. Isaac Todhunter, M.A., F.R.S., Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, most carefully commented on the former edition from beginning to end." That a mathematician of such vast attainments as Mr. Todhunter, and so constantly engaged in the production of his own works, should have thought it worth while to bestow so much time and labor upon the work of a contemporary mathematician, is the strongest guarantee of its excellence and importance. On the other hand, the cases are very rare where so able an author has had the opportunity of availing himself of the criticisms of so able a commentator.

There is at present a large and constantly increasing class of young men who are pursuing post-graduate courses in mathematics, mostly with the intention of becoming professors of that science, or of using it in astronomy and the highest departments of engineering. We believe they would find it to their account to go through the four volumes of Prof. Price's great work, and then to take up and go through the work of De Morgan. Prof. Price will give them the 'Infinitesimal Calculus' in its purest, most uncompromising form, and De Morgan will make them acquainted with its metaphysical and philosophical difficulties, and with much of its history. At any rate there is a very large gap in any mathematical library which does not possess both these great works.

Prof. Cremona is one of the most learned mathematicians, perhaps we should not go wrong in saying the most learned mathematician, in Europe. He is also the author of several mathematical works the excellence of which is attested by the fact of their having been translated into German, French, and English. In his prefaces Prof. Cremona is careful, sometimes it seems to us over careful, to disclaim all pretence to originality. In his foot-notes he is very scrupulous in pointing out the sources of what is contained in his text. He seems to take a special pleasure in pointing out the origin of a proposition by tracing it to Apollonius or Pappus, and then giving references to some modern mathematician who revived or, perhaps, rediscovered it. Often, in regard to some new discovery by a modern mathematician, he not only gives a reference to the book, paper read before some learned society, article in some mathematical journal, or other medium through which it was first announced to the world, but also the volume and page of the discoverer's collected works where it will be found in the form which he finally gave it. His books thus become a pretty full bibliography of the subject which he treats.

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Prof. Cremona is, however, no mere compiler. An accomplished linguist, he gathers his materials from the whole field of mathematical literature, ancient and modern, and then presents them in a form which is all his own, a simple, symmetrical, and artistic whole which appears to the reader as the product of a single brain. Had he devoted himself to original investigation in some special department, he would undoubtedly have enlarged the domain of mathematics by the discovery of new and original theorems. The two small works which lie before us in an English translation deal with "Graphical Statics," a subject which has awakened so much enthusiasm among engineers during the last decade. The first treatise is an introduction to the graphical calculus, the second treats of reciprocal figures. They had already been translated into French and German. The English translation is by T. H. Beare, Professor of Engineering and Applied Mechanics, Heriot-Watt College, Edinburgh. He has been aided throughout by Prof. Cremona himself, who has taken the opportunity not only to revise the work, but also to add considerable new matter not found in the Italian original, so that the English translation may be regarded as its most finished form. To those who wish to begin the study of "modern geometry" with a model book, and at the same time to learn where to look for fuller developments, this little work cannot be too highly recommended.

As to Prof. Comstock's thin octavo of sixty-eight pages, it will, perhaps, be not out of place to remind our readers of one or two facts. Those persons who are engaged in the practical operations of astronomy, engineering, chemistry, and many other departments of science, often wish to ascertain with the utmost attainable precision certain facts which depend upon exact measurements. Experience has demonstrated that where the utmost exactness is aimed at, no matter how skilful the expert and how perfect his instruments may be, a single measurement of a quantity is of little value. The expert endeavors to get a large number of measurements of each of the quantities involved and then to "adjust," or, in the language of Prof. Newcomb, to make a "combination of observations so as to obtain the best result." This is a mathematical process often of great labor and complexity. The mathematical rules and formulæ according to which this process is, in practice, usually conducted, form a "body of principles which treats of the combination and discussion of observed data," and is called the "Method of Least Squares." It takes its name from the fact that certain numbers called *residuals*, differing in each particular investigation, are developed, and "the most probable values of the unknown quantities are those which make the sum of the squares of the residuals a minimum."

Prof. Comstock's little book is a wholly practical exposition of the subject. For analytical demonstrations and developments, he refers to more extended treatises. He states the principles with the utmost clearness, and shows by examples taken from actual work how they are to be applied. We have read the book through with great pleasure and admiration. We do not remember ever to have read a mathematical work in which the somewhat antagonistic qualities of condensation and clearness were more completely reconciled. Of course those who wish to go deeply into the theory and philosophy of the whole matter will read such works as Mr. Wright's elaborate 'Treatise on the Adjustment of Observations,' which was somewhat fully reviewed by us soon after its publication, and Prof. Newcomb's profound essay in the *American Journal of Mathematics* (vol. viii., p. 343). But we are quite sure that every one preparing for a profession in which observation and experiment come largely into play, will find it to his advantage to read this little book first. He will then study the larger works with less labor, more pleasure, and greater profit.

The Republic of Costa Rica. By Joaquin Bernardo Calvo. Translated from the Spanish and edited by L. de T. With introduction, additions, and extensions by the editor. Map and illustrations. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 1890.

THE first thing to be said about this translation is that it is carelessly done and full of mistakes. To go no further than the rendering of the author's letter asking the official sanction of the Costa Rican Government for his work, we find three bad blunders in the single page. "Mientras aparecen" is translated "although may soon appear," instead of "while awaiting the appearance"; "si para ello no hubiere inconveniente" is made to read "and hoping that those composing it [a committee to examine the work] may not find their task distasteful," instead of "if there is no obstacle in the way of it [the naming of such a committee]"; and "en espera de una justa resolución del Ministerio de su digno cargo" appears as "with the hope of a just decision of the Ministry upon its merits," instead of "a just decision by the Ministry worthily filled by you."

These samples are of course sufficient to show the utter carelessness or incompetence of the translator—his name, we believe, is L. Tyner—and there is no need of adducing more, though the material is ample. But one blunder is so astounding, and it seems so incredible that even a proof-reader should not have headed it off, that we cannot forbear citing it. This is the translation of "amortización" by "mortmain." It is repeated several times in treating of Costa Rica's foreign and domestic debt—as, for instance, on p. 176, "mortmain at 1 per cent." This is such obvious nonsense that it is at once clear that the translator knows nothing of financial technical terms in Spanish, and still less of the meaning of "mortmain" in English. But of course he thought he was speaking by the book—the book being his rather antiquated Spanish-English dictionary; this gave him "mortmain" as the only meaning of "amortización," and so down it went. If he had taken the trouble to glance along a couple of words further, he would have found a useful hint under the definition of the verb "amortizar," and if he had done such a daring thing as to consult any recent edition of the Academy's dictionary, he would have found that "the most common use of the word now relates to the extinction of a public debt," and so would have freed himself from the weight of the "dead hand."

The editor's "extensions" are mostly to be found in his Part III., a traveller's guide in condensed form, unaccountably mixed up in the printing with some biographical notes left over from the preceding section. This is useful and well done for the most part. We suppose that his conversion of Señor Calvo's 23° to 26° Centigrade into 65° Fahrenheit should be set down under the head of his "additions"; certainly it would require only slightly more complex arithmetical operations to solve the problem correctly. Equally wide of accuracy are his attempts to turn kilometres into miles. He omitted to notice the list of errata appended to Señor Calvo's book in the original, and so does that gentleman a wrong in making him responsible for misstatements which had been duly corrected. In his introduction he calls attention to the fact that he has occasionally abridged the Spanish text. This is, of course, his right, and as the abridgments fall chiefly in the historical portions, they do not seriously impair the value of the work; but in the condensed biography of President or Dictator Guardia, there surely should have been found room for one or two of Calvo's calm but severe sentences in condemnation of that figure in Costa Rican history. In justice to his publishers, finally, the translator ought not to have omitted Calvo's own preface, especially that part in which the intention of bringing out an enlarged and improved edition of the "Notes" is declared. We are informed by Señor Calvo that such an edition is now well under way, and will soon appear.

After all, the shortcomings of the translator upon which we have thus far had to dwell, do not too seriously affect the value of the book. We get the main results of Calvo's labor, and they are of real importance. At the time of its publication the volume was the only thing of its kind; it has since been supplemented and, in some particulars, amended, by Prof. Biolley's book on Costa Rica, now also done into English. The two together give almost all that is needed for a good understanding of Costa Rica. In the line of natural history particularly, full information is yielded, the labors of German scientists and of Prof. Cope having been freely drawn upon. Commercial and financial statistics are full and brought well down to date, while the resources of the country, with its expanding development and equipment with railroads, telegraph systems, and the like, are clearly stated. One feels as if the impartial foreigner were needed to give all sides of some questions, but on the whole the exuberance of Spanish-American patriotism is kept within limits. Even in its faulty English dress, the book is a welcome addition to the conveniently accessible sources of information about Central America. In his new edition Señor Calvo ought not to forget Guatemala by saying that the only Protestant church in Central America is in San José.

The illustrations are about half portraits of Costa Rican notabilities, and half the inevitable process-reproductions of photographs of scenery, buildings, etc. The publishers have added two maps from their collection. One is a fair map of Central America, the other is a large map of North America, showing Costa Rica like a microscopic object. It is a pity they could not have secured Montesdeoca's beautiful map of Costa Rica, on the scale of eighteen miles to the inch, which adorns Prof. Biolley's book. The lack of an index is woful and inexcusable.

Captain Cook. By Walter Besant. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, vi., 191 pp.; portrait.

IN these days of newspaper "explorations" and multitudinous books of travel, the average reader of current literature is in a fair way to be left without any standards of proportion. If a Stanley towers above the throng, or the successful venture of a Nordenskiöld challenges attention, nevertheless it must be admitted by the student of historical geography that the present is the day of small things. There was and is but one Capt. Cook, yet who, among the rising generation, has read those volumes which describe how his strong hand tore away the veil from half a world? Once they held the place of honor on the shelf of every enterprising boy. Is it too much to hope

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that a discreet abridgment may, in the not distant future, enter the field again? With the earlier volumes stripped of the verbiage of Hawkesworth, and with the elimination of some technical detail, we believe a publisher might find his profit in it.

Mr. Besant passes by the Voyages, for the most part, to sketch for us the portrait of the man. This he has done with clear and just yet kindly touches, as was fitting. James Cook was born at Marton in Yorkshire, October 27, 1728. He was the second son of James, a farm laborer, and Grace, his wife, who had a large family. The boy learned his letters from Mary Walker, whose husband, a wealthy yeoman, gave him work. Later the Cooks moved to Great Ayton, where the father became farm-bailiff to Mr. Skottowe, lord of the manor, who, it would seem, became interested in young James, helped him to some parish schooling, and later to promotion in the naval service. At thirteen the lad was apprenticed to one Sanderson, a shop-keeper of Staithes, a place frequented by seafaring men. A year later he ran away to sea, becoming during the ten years following a practical seaman, and rising to the position of mate. In 1755, the French war impending, Cook volunteered as an able seaman on board H. M. S. *Eagle* of sixty guns. Little is known of his life from 1757 to 1759, but it is certain his capacity was recognized, and that he made use of all his opportunities for acquiring knowledge. At the age of thirty-one, he was made master in the navy and appointed to command the *Mercury*, which joined the fleet engaged with Gen. Wolfe in the reduction of the fortress of Quebec. He surveyed and charted the St. Lawrence with an accuracy which left little to be desired. He devoted himself with ardor to the study of mathematics and astronomy in their relation to navigation, and was transferred to the flagship, which returned to England in the autumn of 1762. On December 21 of the same year he married Elizabeth Batts of Essex, a lady of highly respectable family and much personal beauty. After a few months he sailed on surveying duty on the Canadian coast, and for four years was so employed, his winters being spent in England. In 1766 he communicated his observations on an eclipse of the sun at Newfoundland to the Royal Society. In 1767 his work on the American coast was completed. In the following year the petition of the Royal Society for an expedition to observe the transit of Venus in 1769 from some point in the Pacific was granted, and Cook appointed to command it. The events which followed, culminating in the death of Cook at the hands of the Hawaiians, February 14, 1779, are a matter of history too well known to need repetition. None of his descendants survive.

Mr. Besant's little book is worthy of the great explorer of his century and the sanitarian who drove the scurvy from the navies of the world. That it may call renewed attention to the fascinating story of his voyages is to be hoped and expected.

Shakespeare's True Life. By James Walker Illustrated by Gerald E. Moira. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

THIS large and plentifully illustrated volume is a diffuse and rambling account of the country about Stratford-on-Avon, with some chapters at the end upon old London and Richmond. The author has an affectionate veneration for Shakspere, and his "true life" of the dramatist is an inference largely from the conditions of the soil and people in Warwickshire, which he knows with the familiarity of the local antiquary. He will not allow that there was any truth in the legends derogatory to Shakspere which have gathered about his memory: the deer-stealing, the drinking, the "black" woman, and all such matters are apocryphal, and the financial difficulties of Shakspere's father are susceptible of an explanation in which there is no loss of respectability. In the author's eyes, Shakspere was well-born, well-bred, studied law at Stratford, was married at the proper time, went to London with the advice and consent of his family, was a devoted husband, and, after a successful and honorable career, ended his days as a country gentleman should. Specifically he believes that a "hand-fast ceremony" united Shakspere with Anne Hathaway in the old Manor House at Shottery, prior to the public and Protestant marriage of which we know at a later date; and his second contribution to the biography of the great poet is the suggestion (and according to him the tradition) that the young Shakspere acquired his knowledge of books by reading in the library of an old Catholic family in the neighborhood. He gives us a picture of the library and of Shakspere's room. These matters are all of interest, and if the researches among the old Catholic records in the county are more thoroughly pushed in consequence of the suggestions here made, important facts may be elicited. At present the author's argument is not conclusive.

The more valuable portion of the work lies in the full and detailed view it gives of old Warwickshire and the characteristics of Shakspere's county as he saw it. The town of Stratford, with its church and school and the Shakspere houses, the field about Snittersfield, Shottery, Aston Cantlow, Wilmcote, Luddington, the Avon, are all described by the hand of a lover of the old houses and pathways, and everything ancient is reproduced in the illustrations that accompany the text. One sees as well as reads the sort of physical surroundings amid which Shakspere's early life was passed, and the antiquarian knowledge of the writer reproduces the ancient conditions of life with much picturesqueness and reality. The extent of the tradition of Shakspere over the country near to Stratford may be surprising to those who have limited their observation to the town itself, but here it is to be found in a text which lends as much probability to such traditions as can be done without abandoning the semblance of modern methods of history and biography.

Whether one agrees or not with the view of Shakspere here set forth, he will derive both knowledge and pleasure from the topographical and antiquarian portion of the work, and recognize the great labor and care which the author has spent upon his story; and however doubtful the facts of Shakspere's youth may remain, the general course of his early years in the Warwickshire country receives illumination of a most welcome kind from the pages of this volume.

A Short History of the Roman People. By William F. Allen, late Professor of History in the University of Wisconsin. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1890. Pp. vii., 370. 8vo.

IN what we had to say of Prof. Allen soon after his too early death, we observed that a work of his on Roman history was soon to be published. It has now appeared, and its excellence leads us more than ever to lament the fact that he will write no more. Although the book is not a large one, and is intended for use in colleges and high schools, yet it is free from the two faults to which such manuals are exposed. It is neither a cram-book, full of names and places, foot-notes and dates, nor is it, on the other hand, a mere epitome of events loosely strung together into a bald and uninviting tale. It is written with a definite purpose, well formulated and kept in mind throughout. That purpose was to show the forces by which Rome's greatness under the Republic was attained, and how and why those forces, passing through a period of decay, failed utterly under the Empire to retain what they had been able to secure. No mere political outline had sufficed to form this picture: economic, literary, but, more than all, social and religious elements, not isolated, but kept constantly in touch with one another, are so naturally displayed before the reader as to present the history of the Roman people in a manner intelligent and therefore intelligible.

For the book is rightly named a history of the people. It tells not so much what they did as what they were and how they thought. We had deemed it well-nigh impossible that in so brief a work the real life of a past civilization could be so clearly described and its strength and weakness portrayed. These are the aspects in which the study of the past is of any real usefulness to us, for, as Professor Allen says, "No historical fact is of any value except so far as it helps us to understand human nature or the working of historic forces." On these lines Roman history is probably harder to write than that of any other nation, because Roman historians themselves had no conception that posterity would be interested, not so much in the actual enterprises of their armies as in the analysis of the conditions which made those enterprises possible. We speak of armies, because the history of Rome is largely one of military campaigns. But Professor Allen knew how to read between the lines of the Annalists, and his chapters on foreign conquests form no mere summary of despatches, with lists of killed, wounded, and taken, but we find in them broad statements of the causes and results of the campaigns themselves. On the political and social side of the history he is more particular, and we have marked as especially excellent his explanations of the classes of the citizens, his distinguishing of the different kinds of *comitia*, and his statements of the colonial and provincial systems. His treatment of the struggle between the patricians and plebeians, and of the public-lands agitation, is also admirable.

The original Roman religion is well separated out from the Greek and barbarian influences which encroached upon it, although the obligation to be brief has sometimes led to the omission of necessary particulars. The mad race of the thong-armed *Luperci* would never have been kept up for so many years had it not been that a practical good was supposed to come from the blows they dealt; yet that good is not stated in the text. Again, it is not explained what were the vows of the Vestals. But perhaps such omissions only show that the author's wish was that this should be a book from which history should be taught, not merely recited. The fashion of "hearing" recitations in our high schools and colleges is happily passing away, and there will be little room in the future for the sort of teacher who knows only the book which he has in hand and keeps only about a yard ahead of the boys. Prof. Allen provided material for the amplification of the story in the text by frequent references in foot-notes to essays and works upon special periods of history, and to scholarly historical novels. Drawing from these sources, a good teacher cannot fail to awaken in his pupils that lively

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desire to know more than "the book" tells which should be one of the chief objects of all education.

It was an excellent thought to associate the events of the last century of the Republic closely with six names of contemporary Romans. Biography is among the most interesting as well as trustworthy ways in which history can be studied, and the student who has read carefully the lives of the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Pompey, Cæsar, and Octavian will have the best conception of the times in which they lived. We could wish that ancient and modern sources for the study of these lives had been indicated in notes for the sake of teachers. In another direction the book needs supplementing: we mean in the traditions of the early history. Surely our knowledge that they are but fables is not to lead to an utter abandonment of all those beautiful legends, and to a consequent incomprehension of countless allusions to them in the literature of every modern nation. Doubtless, had Prof. Allen lived to write the preface to his book, he would have pointed out what he thought the best means of studying these romances of history.

There are a dozen good maps in the book and over fifty illustrations of all sorts of subjects, taken from antique sources and generally well chosen and executed. We do not, however, think that the picture (from a coin) of the curule chair would give the uninitiated much light on its construction. This is the fault of the coin itself, not of the cut, and a better model might easily have been found. Of actual errors we have observed only a few, and these doubtless due to oversight. The elder Antonia was the wife, not the mother, of L. Domitius (p. 244). There is no evidence that the Vestal fire was ever lighted by striking a spark from a flint (p. 25). The *imagines* were masks, not busts (p. 63), and the famous words, *Veni, vidi, vici*, were not sent home in a despatch (p. 216), but, according to Plutarch, in a private letter to a friend, or, as Suetonius says, inscribed on a tablet carried in Cæsar's triumph. We suppose that "Japygians" (p. 5) is a misprint. The book has two excellent indexes, and the author dedicated it to Prof. Torrey of Harvard, "who first awakened me to an interest in historical study." That gentleman, in his retirement, may well be proud of these fruits of his teaching.

Pastels in Prose. Translations from the French by Stuart Merrill. With a preface by W. D. Howells, and illustrations by H. W. McVickar. Harper & Bros. 1890.

THIS collection of the "prose poems" of some two dozen modern French authors is the third of the series of translations which the Harpers are now issuing, Maupassant's 'Odd Number' having been the first. The "prose poem" (as Mr. Howells says in his capital little preface, which might very well itself come within the vague limitations set for "prose poems") is a purely modern thing, though many prose writings, especially the Scriptures, have passages which conform to its requirements. Judged by the most labored examples, it is an attempt to develop fully and passionately, in the smallest possible space, one idea or picture or emotion, the restraints of poetry being changed for the equally severe but less cramping restraints of prose. To add to the rhythmic effect, some of the writers in this collection have affected a phrase which recurs after each paragraph like the refrain of a ballade; but, luckily, this not always happy device is adopted by but few, the greater part of them developing their idea with the greatest simplicity and directness. The translation is as well done as one could wish, which is saying a good deal; for these are really untranslatable things, and the bloom of the pastel which Mr. Howells still seems to see on them has disappeared to a large extent beneath the rude Saxon touch. Some of them, indeed, like Daudet's "Little Dauphin" (which is rather a *conte* than a "prose poem," though infinitely poetic), lose little; but a *tour de force* like Huysmans's "Camaïeu in Red," an opalescent, refulgent picture in the original, seems almost silly in the inadequate English rendering of its strings of adjectives and participial construction.

The intellectual result of the selections goes for but little, though the range of authors runs from Baudelaire to Catulle Mendès. There is a monotony in their mundane philosophy which is disappointing. The hope of the book lies in the familiarizing of English writers with a possible daring use of language which so few have any conception of, and which, when rightly employed, can be so beautiful an ornament to a powerful thought.

Mr. McVickar's illustrations are not in bad taste exactly, but, with all their precision of line and eighteenth-century prettiness, they are so unimaginative and meaningless that they belittle the great fancy pictures they were meant to typify.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Archer, W. William Charles Macready. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Bülbring, K. D. The Compleat English Gentleman, by Daniel Defoe. London: David Nutt.
Clouston, W. A. Flowers from a Persian Garden, and Other Papers. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
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